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ABSTRACT

The present study sought to provide data that will contribute to an understanding of how a select group of graduating college seniors perceive and feel about work. The sample was composed of 1,860 male and female members of the class of 1972 at 5 colleges in Pennsylvania. The vast majority of the seniors expressed favorable attitudes toward work and see it as a critical and necessary part of adult life. The data suggest the work ethic is neither dead nor dying; rather a work ethic is emerging that places a much greater demand on work while at the same time de-emphasizing the importance of money, power, and prestige. The expectation is that work can and should have greater significance to the individual and greater value to society. The report includes an annotated bibliography. (Author/HS)

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STUDY REPORT:
YOUTH AND THE MEANING OF WORK

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YOUTH AND THE MEANING OF WORK

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February 28, 1973

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The study reported in "Youth and The Meaning of Work" sought to provide data that will contribute to an understanding of how a select group of American youth (graduating college seniors) perceive and feel about work. The sample was composed of 1,860 male and female members of the class of 1972 at five colleges located in Pennsylvania. Data collection was accomplished through the utilization of in-depth personal interviews and a pencil and paper questionnaire. The variables sex, SES, and ethnic-religious orientation contribute to the diversity apparent among the surveyed youth. Each of the above variables plays some part in how students feel about themselves, work, their college experiences, and their futures. The vast majority of the seniors express favorable attitudes toward work and see it as a critical and necessary part of adult life. The data suggest the work ethic is neither dead nor dying; rather a work ethic is emerging that places a much greater demand on work while at the same time de-emphasizing the importance of money, power, and prestige. The expectation is that work can and should (over)

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February 28, 1973
Study Director: Dr. David Gottlieb
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  Ms Virginia Hayes Sibbison
  Ms Anne Lienhard Heinsohn
  Mr. Martin Ford

INTRODUCTION

This report deals with the work related aspirations, expectations, and apprehensions of 1860 American college seniors of the classes of 1972.

The Methodology chapter (Chapter 1) describes the procedures through which the sample was drawn; the differences and similarities of the five schools which our respondents were attending; the processes of pre-testing and instrument development; and the construction of the various indices used in our data analysis.

The chapters which follow provide the reader with a more personal and more precise picture of our respondents. Who they are, what they think, how they feel about work, how they feel about themselves, what they want, what they expect, and what they think they do and do not know, are all questions we seek to answer in this research.

Obviously an activity as salient as work cannot be studied in isolation from other aspects of one's life. Hence in this research we also seek to provide some information about work centrality; that is, how work is seen to connect with, or fit into, other phases and dimensions of the individual's life style.

We know that American youth and American college students are not a monolith nor are they cut of a common cloth. They come to college for different reasons and they respond to college experiences in different ways. They hold differing personal values, as well as reflecting differences in political and religious orientations. They vary in their attitudes toward themselves and others. They are not alike in the importance they assign to work, in what they hope to achieve through their career activities, or in their reasons for seeking work.

It is also our intent in this report to point out the areas of student diversity as well as consensus and to identify the variables which seem to explain these diversities. Therefore we deal with a number of background and demographic variables, variables which do contribute to both differences and similarities in the attitudes, values, and expectations of college seniors.

We also seek to make some contribution to the systematic study of American women. Hence in our study we sought and were successful in obtaining a sample divided equally between men and women. In each chapter and in almost every issue discussed we provide data which has been analyzed for differential impact upon men and women.

Finally, a major purpose of this study was to provide data which might be useful to those who are committed to the goal of finding more humane, dignified, reliable, responsive, and honest ways of helping youth search for gratifying and productive work.

CHAPTER 1

METHODOLOGY

Selection of the Schools

The selection of the schools was influenced by our intention to obtain a respondent sample which would reflect a wide internal range of demographic variables (hometown location; parent income, education, and occupation; college major; sex; race; etc.); and hence, a potentially wide range of attitudinal and expectancy variables in areas such as work-related concerns, evaluations of the college experience, political affiliations, and life style preferences. All of the schools included in this report are located in Pennsylvania.

Because different types of educational institutions typically attract differing types of students, the schools themselves were selected for their variability. Brief descriptions of our sample colleges and universities are as follows:*

Latham University: Located in a small town, Latham has a total of 2,696 undergraduates, 564 of whom are in their senior year. Latham is a private school primarily enrolling white, fairly affluent youth from a number of states along the eastern seaboard and in the midwest. Although the emphasis is on undergraduate training, there are several graduate programs. Field of study alternatives are numerous and include majors such as Business Administration, Engineering, Physical Sciences, and Biological Sciences. Many of these students have parents who have attended college and are therefore second generation college goers. A large number of Latham graduates go on for advanced degrees.

Fletcher State College: Also located in a small town, there are 3,856 undergraduates including 575 seniors enrolled at Fletcher State College. The majority of students come from rural communities or from the moderately large cities nearby. The student body consists primarily of white, first-generation college students from working class homes. Most anticipate entering the full-time job market upon graduation as teachers in elementary or secondary schools.

State University: Located in a small college community in the rural center of Pennsylvania, State University enrolls approximately 19,000 undergraduates, 5,091 of whom are members of the 1972 senior class. Although the majority of students are from Pennsylvania, they represent a fairly heterogeneous student population. Many are from the major metropolitan areas of the state. Based on demographic data provided by the university, we know that about one fourth come from families where one or both of the parents have completed college, and the majority come from middle income homes. About five percent (5%) are Black and thirty percent (30%) come from rural or middle sized communities. The university has a variety of graduate and professional programs.

* One of the schools requested that it not be identified by name in this report. It was our decision to change the names of the other schools as well; nevertheless, basic descriptions and demographic data are accurate.

University of Metro: Located in one of the large metropolitan cities of Pennsylvania, there are 10,542 undergraduates at the university of whom 2,966 are seniors. Many of the undergraduates are either residents of the city itself or of the nearby surrounding communities. The school has a fairly heterogeneous population of urban and suburban students. The student body includes minority group members and students representing different socioeconomic, ethnic, and religious backgrounds. The University of Metro, like State University, has a large number of professional and graduate school programs.

Reeves State College: Located in a small town within close proximity to a large urban center, there are 2,100 undergraduates at Reeves State College; of which 300 are members of the senior class. The student population is approximately eighty-five percent (85%) Black and most are from working class families. Very nearly all of the undergraduates are city residents and half of them live at home while attending Reeves. The college offers several undergraduate programs, however most of the students major in Elementary or Secondary Education, and the Social Sciences.

As can be seen in the preceding descriptions, the schools vary in location (one large urban university, University of Metro; one large rural university, State University; two small rural schools, Fletcher State College and Latham University; and one small near-urban college, Reeves State College); the schools additionally vary in the typical socioeconomic status of the student population. Latham students tend to come from middle to upper class status homes, and hence are frequently the children of college graduates; Fletcher and Reeves typically enroll students whose backgrounds are of middle to working class status, and these students are usually the first generation of their families to attend college. The student populations of State University and The University of Metro reflect a wide range of background experiences and statuses, ranging from young people from urban ghettos to those of affluent "leading" families. These five educational institutions also differ from one another in the percentages of different races and sexes enrolled at each, and in the college majors which are offered.

The Sample

Although most studies on youth have concentrated on the male population, one basic objective of this survey was to obtain data from equal numbers of males and females. Our initial goal was to obtain a total sample of 2,000 respondents, with approximately 400 from each of the five participating schools. However, the total graduating class at one of the schools (Reeves) was far smaller than at any of the other four schools.

The sample was obtained through a systematic random selection process at the four schools whose population sizes were sufficiently large to be appropriate for this procedure. The fifth school's senior enrollment was so small that we approached all the seniors for their participation. (See Appendix for the sampling instructions which were distributed.) Each of the sample seniors was paid $5.00 for his or her participation.

The distribution and collection of the questionnaires was facilitated by the hiring of a "campus coordinator" at each of the schools. The responsibilities of these individuals were the following:

1) identification of the sample through the obtainment of graduation senior lists

2) selection of the sample by means of a random selection procedure

3) arrangement of the thirty interviews conducted at each campus

4) distribution and collection of the questionnaires

5) keeping of records of respondents' names and addresses to insure payment

The coordinators were expected to conduct their own follow-up procedures, and were paid according to the percentage of questionnaires which they were able to return to us.

Participation Results

The following Table 1.1 presents information on the schools according to numbers and percentages of respondents, numbers of males and females in the sample, and the percentage contribution to the total sample.

Table 1.1

Sex, School, and Response Frequencies

School	Number Sent	# Returned & Utilized in Sample	% Returned	# of Males	# of Females	% of Total Sample
State U.	500	408	82	204	204	22
Fletcher	480	407	85	151	256	22
Latham	501	458	91	297	161	24
Metro	492	404	82	191	213	22
Reeves	189	183	97	65	116	10
TOTALS	(2162)	(1860)	86	(908)	(950)	100

As this table indicates, we were able to achieve an overall response rate of eighty-six percent (86%). The greater differences in sex of respondents for Fletcher, Reeves, and Latham reflects the actual sex distribution of graduating seniors in each of these three schools. In other words, the pool of males at Reeves and Fletcher was smaller than that of State University and the University of Metro. Similarly, the pool of females at Latham was proportionately less than that of other sample schools.

The Survey Instruments

The primary research instrument was a pencil-paper questionnaire distributed to 2,162 graduating seniors and designed specifically for this study. A copy of the questionnaire is included in the Appendix. We sought the following kinds of information:

1) Work-related variables: How do different kinds of college seniors approach work? What saliency do they attribute to work as meaningful aspects of their adult lives? What kind of criteria are utilized by college seniors in assessing the value and significance of different career and work settings? What personal values are taken into consideration in the selection of careers and work settings?

2) Perception of the college experience and its contribution to the work expectations, abilities, and alternatives of the individual: What kinds of career and job selection assistance were available to the student? To what degree have the skills acqured during college been useful in the search and obtainment of employment? How do they perceive the impact of the college experience in terms of social, intellectual, and pragmatic skills?

3) Life style characteristics: What are the characteristics of the ideal or personally rewarding work settings and work-life styles? Are there identifiable emerging life styles which indicate new and different approaches to career selection and work commitment? How do the expected and desired life styles of young people differ from those of their parents?

In addition, we were concerned with knowing more about how variations in sex, age, race, socioeconomic status, values, aspirations, and fields of study interact with work and career-related attitudes and behavior.

The construction of the questions reflected three basic types of information orientation: 1) Questions about work and life which were unique to our study's interests and directions; 2) Questions which were of theoretical interest to students of work and youth socialization; and 3) Questions which had been asked in other studies, and hence lent themselves to replicability and comparisons.

Initial questionnaire development was facilitated by the analysis of one-hundred and fifty (150) in-depth interviews conducted at the five campuses. (See Appendix for two sample interviews.) The following critical areas of topic interest were identified early in the study and utilized in an open-ended, semi-structured interview format:

1) plans for the future

2) occupational plans

3) current job situation

4) development and assistance in career choice

5) perceptions of career and future interaction

6) relationship between and life style preferences

7) parental attitudes toward work

8) definition of work

9) characteristics of desired work setting

10) peer attitudes toward work

11) concerns about the state of the society

12) political orientations, attitudes, etc.

13) relationship between education and career

The interviews were conducted by the study director and assistants. The information gathered through this source served the purpose of clarifying the types of questions which were most likely to produce relevant information, and additionally contributed a comprehensive depth to our data. A second round of interviews at each of the five sample schools produced relevant information on they adequacy of the pre-test questionnaire and led to changes in wording and instrument format. Two questionnaire drafts were developed and tested; these pre-test efforts, combined with the one-hundred and fifty personal interviews, resulted in the construction of the final survey research instrument.

While the questionnaire is somewhat lengthy in the time required for its completion (averaging 45 minutes), both the variety of topics covered and its personal relevancy to the lives of the young people who participated contributed to a generally enthusiastic response by our sample.

Follow-Up Efforts

Although each of the five schools had engaged in some follow-up efforts to encourage additional participation, we decided to initate efforts on our own. Hence, we contacted those seniors originally selected who had not yet completed and returned a questionnaire. In some cases, these students had never received a questionnaire; in others, they simply had not returned their questionnaire. Recognizing that these students were nearing graduation, and therefore were quite likely to be very busy with many requirements, papers, examinations, and post-college planning, we provided an additional questionnaire in case they had either misplaced or never received the first.

The follow-up procedure produced a substantial increase in the return rate and contributed substantially to the final return rate of eighty-six percent (86%).

Data Analysis

Much of the data analysis provided in this research was generated through the utilization of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, devised by Norman H. Nie, Dale H. Bent, and C. Hadlai Hull in conjunction with the Political Science Department at Stanford University. Several other subroutines from the library of the Pennsylvania State University Computation Center were employed, but only to a minimal degree. The methodological and statistical procedures implemented are described in the following pages, as are the various indices used in this research.

Socioeconomic Status Index

This index is very similar to the one used in The National Opinion Research Center's 1961 national survey of graduating seniors (Davis, 1961), with three variables contributing to the SES "score" that was given to each respondent: Father education; Father occupation; and Parent income. For each of these variables it was possible to obtain a score of either zero or one. The scores for each variable are added, creating an index rated in four categories (Very-High, Mid-High, Mid-Low, Very-Low) from zero to three. The component variables were scored in the following way:

Father Education
(0) - 8th grade or less
some high school
vo-tech school
(1) - some college
college graduate
graduate or professional degree

Father Occupation
(0) - housewife
skilled or semi-skilled worker
unskilled worker
farmer or farm worker
not employed
(1) - professional
proprietor or manager
sales or clerical

Parent Income
(0) - less than $10,000
(1) - more than $10,000

These breakdowns serve a twofold purpose. First, they are intuitively reasonable; distinctions are made between college and non-college goers, blue and white collar workers, and high and low income brackets. Second, the four categories are set up in such a way that approximately one-fourth of the respondents fall into each group. It is important to remember, therefore, that this index is relative and is not meant to be predictive of the entire population, but only for our college graduates.

Religious Fall Index

This index is a combination of two variables, religion in which reared and current religious preference. The new index takes on six values, as described below.

Value	Original Religion	Current Religion
1	Protestant	Protestant
2	Catholic	Catholic
3	Jewish	Jewish
4	Protestant	None
5	Catholic	None
6	Jewish	None

The categories that this index does not take into account were either difficult to interpret (e.g. if the original or current religion was checked as "other"), or very small (e.g. Catholic to Jewish, raised in no religion, etc.). The index simply offers a better measurement of the real religious orientation of each respondent.

Rating of Sex Role Attitude Index

In the questionnaire, there is a series of variables dealing with the respondent's attitudes towards male-female roles. These seven variables were collapsed into one, scored depending on the degree of traditionalism in the responses made by each student. Following is a listing of the variables that make up this index.

1) In general, women and men have equal capabilities and, therefore, should have equal opportunities for work.

2) In general, women may be equal to men in some areas, but their thinking patterns are different from men, and they are therefore less efficient than men in some work.

3) In general, women are more emotional than men, and this would interfere with their doing certain types of work.

4) In general, the physical characteristics of women make them

unqualified for some types of work which are generally available to men.

5) Women are not really "equal" to men rather, they are different and should, therefore, have different kinds of jobs.

6) Women function best in the roles of wife and mother.

7) A true women is happiest at home with her children and her husband.

For each of these items the respondent could check either "agree" or "disagree." For all but the first, an answer of "agree" was considered traditional. By giving a value of one to each traditional response, and then summing these values, a scale from zero to seven was devised. These scale values were combined in such a way that the index had three values, as schematized below:

# of Traditional Responses	Value Label
0, 1. 2	Less Traditional
3, 4	Some Traditional
5, 6, 7	More Traditional

Ethnic Background (Religion and Nationality) Index

This index is again a combination of two variables, present religious preference and national origins. This index has proved to be a good predictor of many other variables, and is dealt with extensively in the report. The following lists the twelve different categories in the ethnic index:

(1) Anglo-Saxon-Protestant
(2) German-Protestant
(3) Scandinavian-Protestant
(4) Irish-Catholic
(5) German-Catholic
(6) Italian-Catholic
(7) Polish-Catholic
(8) Jewish
(9) No Religion
(10) Black
(11) Slavic-Protestant
(12) Slavic-Catholic

The Self-Reported Personality Characteristics Indices and The Work Attitudes Indices

This paragraph deals with the development of two indices used throughout this study: 1) Self-reported personality characteristics; and 2) Attitudes towards work and career success. Both indices originated from a series of specific items dealing with personality and work attitudes. Frequency distributions for these original scales are given in Chapter 2, Tables 2.16 and 2.17. One should be sensitive to these percentages, because they are obscured when the final scores for the indices are computed for each respondent.

The first statistical procedure used for each measurement scale was a principal component analysis. Conceptually, this provides a number of abstract measurement scales (equal to the number of original items in the scale), each of which measures certain attributes to varying degrees with respect to the original items. A correlation matrix of the original items and the abstract measurement scales (which will be referred to here as "factors") shows more precisely what each factor is actually measuring. Each of the original items has weight in each factor, but some have a great deal more weight than others. A cutoff point of a ± .25 correlation coefficient on the rotated factor matrix (the matrix referred to above) serves to identify the principal components of each factor. Only some of the factors merit discussion, however, as each one accounts for some of the variance in the sample with respect to the original measurements, but only a relative few account for enough variance to be meaningful. Therefore, principal component analysis serves as a useful form of data reduction. The personality scale of 36 items was reduced to eight factors, and the work attitude scale was similarly reduced to six factors. The following pages show how these selected factors were labeled, and the weightings of each of the principal components for each factor.

Work Attitude Factors

Factor 1 - Success oriented through hard work

Factor 2 - Job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money

Factor 3 - Worried about job being boring, uncreative - no useful guidance

Factor 4 - Private life more important than a job; unmaterialistic, anti-business

Factor 5 - Worried about job setting

Factor 6 - I like work, working will make me a better person

Personality Factors

Factor 1 - Practical, logical, cautious

Factor 2 - Hostile, alienated, unhappy

Factor 3 - Ambitious, aggressive, a leader

Factor 4 - Analytical, insightful, an intellectual

Factor 5 - Secure, confident, happy

Factor 6 - Easy-going, fun-loving, athletic

Factor 7 - Moral, very religious, honest

Factor 8 - Beautiful, loving, thoughtful

Makeup of Work Attitude Factors including all variables with correlation coefficients exceeding the significance level of ±.25 on the rotated factor matrix.

Factor 1 - "Success oriented through hard work"

C.C.	Variable
.73	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of hard work.
.67	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of personal effort.
.60	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of how much you know.
.58	Hard work makes you a better person.
.57	In our society, anyone who is physically able and wants to find a job can find a job.
.55	Work is a good builder of character.
.28	To be really successful in life, you must care about making money.

Factor 2 - "Job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money."

C.C.	Variable
.77	A job is a way of making a living, not a way of life.
.77	To me, work is nothing more than a way of making a living.
.63	The most important part of work is earning enough money to do what I want.
-.46	My career will be the most important thing in my life.
-.31	I like to work.

Factor 3 - "Worried about job being boring, uncreative - no useful guidance."

C.C.	Variable
.63	I have a pretty good idea of what I want to do with my life, but I'm not sure there is any way for me to do it.
.58	Little useful guidance is provided for making career choices.
.56	I'm worried that my job will be boring and monotonous.
.55	Few jobs let a person be creative.
.28	My career will be the most important thing in my life.

Factor 4 - "Private life more important than work; unmaterialistic."

C.C.	Variable
.75	My private life will not be sacrificed to make more money.
.59	I would not work for an organization that carried out policies I think are wrong.
-.44	To be really successful in life, you must care about making money.
.42	I assume I will have a good income. I'm more concerned with finding a job where I will do relevant things.
.39	I would rather not take a job in business.
-.28	The most important part of work to me is earning enough money to do what I want.

Factor 5 - "Worried about job Setting."

C.C.	Variable
.71	There is no place for the rebel in large organizations.
-.42	The kind of work I do matters more than whether I do it for government, business, a university, or an independent organization.
-.40	I assume I will have a good income. I'm more concerned with finding a job where I will dc relevant things.
.35	I would rather not take a job in business.
-.27	Little useful guidance is provided for making career choices.

Factor 6 - "I like work, working will make me a better person."

C.C.	Variable
.75	Most people like to work.
.71	I like to work.
.50	Work is a good builder of character.
.42	Hard work makes you a better person.
.30	The kind of work I do matters more than whether I do it for government, business, a university, or an independent organization.

Makeup of Personality Factors including all variables with coreelation coefficients exceeding the significance level of ±.25 in the rotated factor matrix.

Factor 1 - "Practical, logical, cautious

C.C.	Variable
.66	practical
.58	logical
-.53	impulsive
.52	cautious
-.43	idealistic
.33	serious
.33	mature
.31	analytical

Factor 2 - "Hostile, alienated, unhappy"

C.C.	Variable
.71	hostile
.65	uncooperative
.63	alienated
.56	unhappy
.49	cynical
.42	uncommitted
.41	hung-up
-.31	loving
-.30	optimistic
-.29	fun-loving
-.27	involved
-.25	hard working

Factor 3 - "Ambitious, aggressive, a leader"

C.C.	Variable
.78	ambitious
.70	aggressive
.69	competitive
.59	hardworking
.43	confident
.40	involved
-.32	uncommitted
.27	mature
.26	athletic

Factor 4 - "Analytical, insightful, an intellectual"

C.C.	Variable
.67	analytical
.66	insightful
.58	an intellectual
.55	intelligent
.46	logical
.29	idealistic
.29	thoughtful

Factor 5 - "Secure, confident, happy"

C.C.	Variable
-.71	insecure
.62	confident
-.57	hung-up
.44	optimistic
.35	beautiful
.31	a leader

.31	athletic
.27	mature
-.45	unhappy

Factor 6 - "Easy-going, athletic"

C.C.	Variable
.72	easy-going
.70	fun-loving
.43	athletic
-.33	serious
.32	committed

Factor 7 - "Moral, very religious, honest"

C.C.	Variable
.72	moral
.70	very religious
.54	honest
.29	thoughtful
.28	serious
.25	involved

Factor 8 - "Beautiful, loving, thoughtful"

C.C.	Variable
.66	beautiful
.63	loving
.47	thoughtful
.30	mature
.26	serious
.26	intelligent

Each of the selected factors that were created by the principal component analysis were then treated as new variables, each not measuring any single specific attribute, but rather a group of attributes that tended to cluster around the factor. Every respondent who had answered all of the items in either scale was then assigned a score for each of the personality and work attitude factors (systematic casewise deletion was implemented). These scores were standarized. These factor scores then are measurements of the presence of certain attributes (either self-reported personality characteristics or work attitudes) with respect to the sample means for each factor.

These scores were recoded so that each factor had six categories, ranging from high positive to high negative scores. The factors were then treated like any other variables, and frequency distributions with respect to other variables were obtained. However, this meant that if one wished to relate race to self-reported personality characteristics, it was necessary to look at eight tables - one for each of the personality factors. Therefore, each factor was treated as a value for one variable, the personality of a respondent (or the work attitudes of a respondent). For each value (factor), a score was given by collapsing the six categories in each factor and assigning a number from -3 to +3, an arbitrary but logical statistical criterion. A score of zero represented an average score for that attribute, a score of -2 or -3 showed a significant tendency to score negatively on that factor with respect to the attribute, and a score of +2 or +3 showed a significant tendency to score positively for that particular factor, again with respect to the principal components of the factor. These scores are the scores that appear in the tables throughout the study when personality characteristics and work attitudes are related to other variables.

Study Time Schedule and Procedures

The entire duration of the study was fifteen months, beginning December 1, 1971, and extending to February 28, 1973.

Phase I: December 1, 1971 - January 31, 1972

The initial survey instrument was developed by the study director and assistants. The study director visited each of the five sample schools in order to facilitate the cooperation of the institution; to become further familiarized with both the schools, their personnel and student bodies; and to select a field representative on each campus. The first series of in-depth, taped interviews (15 per campus) were conducted by the project director and assistants.

Phase II: February 1, 1972 - March 31, 1972

Data was collected through the pre-test questionnaire and by means of the interviews conducted at each campus. Utilizing the information from both of these sources, the questionnaire was revised twice and then shaped into its final version. The questionnaires were then printed and distributed to the five field representatives. The final series of in-depth taped interviews were concluded (15 per campus). A systematic search and analysis of the literature dealing with youth and work was begun as an integral facet of this report.

Phase III: April 1, 1972 - May 15, 1972

A preliminary preparation of the computer program to be used (The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). The coding and keypunching instructions were finalized, and personnel to perform this aspect of the study were hired. The field representatives began the process of returning completed questionnaires. In three cases (Fletcher, Reeves, and the University of Metro), it was necessary to begin various follow-up procedures to encourage additional participation.

Phase IV: May 15, 1972 - June 30, 1972

Coding was completed, the responses punched onto computer cards, and the data was then transferred to a tape deck to facilitate processing. Mailing of the five dollar participation checks to the respondents was completed.

Phase V: July 1, 1972 - February 28, 1973

The data was processed through The Statistical Package for Social Sciences, the findings analyzed by our staff, and the results prepared for this report.

THE RESPONDENTS: THE CLASSES OF 1972

The purpose of this chapter is to establish in the reader's mind an overall picture of who our respondents are and what they are like. The chapter is divided into four sections: (1) Ten student profiles. One male and one female from each of the five selected schools are dealt with individually, considering relevant demographic and attitudinal features and their post-college expectations. (2) Frequency distributions of selected demographic variables. This section provides a first look at some of the critical variables that are considered throughout this report. Among these are school, sex, field of study, religious attitudes, ethnic background, and socioeconomic status. (3) Three-way frequency distributions of selected demographic variables. Here there is a trivariate analysis of the especially important combinations of variables, with control for the sex of the respondent (4) Correlational analysis of the relationships between the constructed personality and work attitude indices (see Chapter 1), and selected demographic variables. This last section provides an introduction to two indices used in the report and their connection with the most significant of the demographic variables, including school, sex, religious attitudes, and socioeconomic status In later chapters, additional correlational analysis will be considered for other variables in connection with the personality and work attitude indices

It should be noted here that for all of the tables in this report, percentages have been adjusted to the particular N size for each variable. Percentage differences for similar categories in different tables reflect only the differences in N sizes for that variable.

I. Personality Profiles

In an attempt to give more meaning to the vast amounts of statistical data that will follow in this and later chapters, specific biographical sketches will be given for ten selected students, one male and one female from each of the five schools involved in this research. These profiles are meant to provide the reader with a more personal introduction to the non-monolithic quality of American college seniors. Here then are profiles of ten seniors from the class of 1972.

John Schmidt of State University

John Schmidt is 21 years old, white and single. His hometown is in a rural area of western Pennsylvania, where he was reared as and still is a Methodist, though he rarely attends church. His father did not complete high school, but the family income is supplemented by his mother, who is in sales work. John checks his father's occupation as "skilled or semi-skilled worker," bringing the family income into the $10,000-$15,000 range John's parents pay for three-quarters of his college education, the rest being financed by his own part-time and/or summer work.

John says his parents were "very influential" in his college major and career decisions, and yet they are "not pleased" with their son's career and work plans. A major in Business Administration, John holds a B- grade point average in his four years of study. He says he has a "lack of clear or positive aims." His fall plans are uncertain. John concedes that he will probably find a full-time job not in his field, though he has not yet begun to seriously seek a job. The problems he expects to encounter when seeking employment are "the adequacy of my educational qualifications," "the tight job market," and "not knowing what I want to do." John has relatively high salary expectations, despite his lack of direction. He expects to earn $8,000-$12,000 on his first job, and expects to reach the $20,000-$25,000 bracket in ten years. To John, earning a high salary is the second most important aspect of a job (a feeling not shared by most of his peers), with only the "opportunity to be individualistic" being a more salient concern.

John's longer range plans include travel and marriage. He wants to find an interesting job, maybe even go into business for himself. John says he went to college for career and job training but adds, "I am still trying to find myself."

Sandra Miller of State University

Sandra Miller is white and 21 years old. Her hometown is checked as "farm or open country." She was raised as a Lutheran, but her current religious preference is designated as "none." She is politically liberal, and is a first generation college student. Her parents, high school graduates, both work: her father as a "proprietor or manager," her mother as a clerical worker. Their combined income, $20,000-$25,000, helps pay for almost all of Sandy's educational costs.

Sandy sees herself as "a leader" and "hardworking," but also as being "cynical," "alienated," and not "moral." She is extremely capable, achieving a four-year grade point average of "A" in General Arts and Sciences. If given a free choice, with no restrictions, in what she wants to do, Sandy would "join a group working to alleviate social problems." However, because she is marrying a student in the summer, she feels a special urgency in finding employment of almost any kind. She will attend an institute for paralegal training in the summer, and expects to find employment in the city as a lawyer's aide. She has not yet sought a job, however, presumably because she is waiting to develop new skills in summer school. Ideally, her eventual career would be working with children as a counseling psychologist. This would require studying psychology at the graduate level, as her major was very eclectic and did not, she feels, prepare her for any particular career. Sandra Miller, despite her immediate problems, feels that the "good life" will be easily attainable.

Richard Morganstern of Fletcher State College

Richard Morganstern is a first-generation college student from the suburbs of a small city. He is a white German-American, 25 years old, and has a wife who is working full time. Richard is an Evangelist, the same religion in which he was reared, but does not attend church. His father is a "skilled or semi-skilled worker" who earns $15,000-$20,000 annually. His mother is a homemaker. Richard is an Education major with a B- average. He has not yet seriously sought employment, but expects to take a temporary job in the summer and then go into full-time work in his own field in the fall. He expects to have many problems when looking for a job, among them the adequacy of his skills and educational qualifications, "the tight job market," "finding a job with desirable characteristics," and "not knowing what I want to do." Richard's college career has been interrupted by periods of full-time employment, but when talking about his future, he states that he is "confused and in constant deliberation with myself and what I want to do." He is often troubled about society as well as his role in society. When asked to reconsider his college experience, Richard Morganstern replies, "I would not attend."

Jeanne Hall of Fletcher State College

Jeanne Hall is a 20 year old white German-American, lives in rural Pennsylvania, and was raised as a Lutheran. Since then she has become a Fundamentalist and says she is "very religious." She is married to a graduate student. Jeanne's father is a college graduate, a professional, and earns between $10,000-$15,000. Her mother is a housewife and a high school graduate.

Jeanne is an Education major, and holds a B+ grade point average. She has completed her degree requirements in less than three years. She wants a job very much, but has been unable to obtain any employment despite intensive search. Immediate financial difficulties are the greatest concern for Jeanne and her husband. She would very much like to open her own nursery school, but her husband is encouraging her to find a more secure position because of the financial risks involved in attempting to start her own school.

Jeanne's parents are pleased with her work plans. She expects to have a starting salary of $5,000-$8,000, probably as a teacher. She sees herself in a very traditional life style and expects to stop working and have a family when her husband enters the job market. However, she likes to work, and describes herself as "intelligent," "ambitious," "mature," and "aggressive." She says that when she thinks about work she feels "vigorous."

Gerald Vandenberg of Latham College

Gerald Vandenberg is 21 years old, white, and single. He was raised in the Jewish faith, and though he rarely attends services, he still considers himself a Jew. His father and mother, college graduates, are both professionals and have a combined income of $30,000-$40,000. They pay for much of their son's educational expenses.

Gerry is a Business Administration major carrying a C+ grade point average. He is unsure of his post-graduation plans, but thinks he will seek a temporary job for the summer of 1972. He has neither sought nor obtained any job, and plans to devote most of his time for the next year to his "own interests." Gerry sees work as a source of financial security and perhaps, a continual source of enjoyment. His salary expectations are not high. When asked to describe his feelings about college graduates who postpone entering the job market even though they could work if they wanted to, Gerry replies, "They're fortunate and I'd do the same if I could." He lists as the most important aspects of a job, "personal interest in work" and "chance to engage in satisfying leisure activities." His preferred career choice is to be an "independent businessman."

Gerry sees himself as "fun-loving" and "easy-going," but also as "mature," "intelligent," and "optimistic." His college experience was, by his own admission, a disappointment. He describes his college curriculum as "irrelevant" and "boring." He would attend Latham again, but adds that he would change his major. His number one reason for attending college was "I never considered any other possibility."

Mary Ann Ellison of Latham College

Mary Ann Ellison came to Latham from the suburbs of a middle-sized Pennsylvania city and a very comfortable life style. Mary Ann is a Presbyterian, 22 years old, white, and single. She describes herself as "beautiful," "loving," and "hardworking." Her father is a professional with a "graduate or professional degree beyond the baccalaureate," earning $25,000-$30,000 annually. Her mother is a housewife with some college background. Mary Ann's parents pay for all of her educational expenses.

Mary Ann majors in the Biological Sciences, carries a B- average, and hopes to take a full-time job in her field in the fall of 1972. She has seriously sought employment in her field, but has been unable to find a job thus far. She feels that it would be easy for her to find employment in some other field. Mary Ann thinks that for her the "good life" will be easily attainable. She wants to live a life style similar to that of her parents.

There were not many females in the study who held "traditional" ideas about the female role, but Mary Ann was one of them. She is in many ways a conservative thinker. She does not want to leave college because that is where all of her friends are (she was very active in a sorority). She has mixed feelings about going to work, but feels "anxious to prove to myself I can do it."

Paul Monrelli of Metro University

Paul Monrelli is 22 years old, white, single and very apprehensive about society and his role in society. He was raised as a Roman Catholic but now selects "none" as his religious preference. His father, a high school dropout, is unemployed, and his mother, who did not attend high school, is a homemaker. The annual family income is between $5,000-$8,000. Paul Monrelli comes from a major metropolitan area, and sees himself as "intelligent" and "hardworking" but also "cynical" and "insecure."

A B+ student in the Social Sciences, Paul finances his college education by both part-time and summer work (30%) and through scholarships and grants (70%). He describes his college life as "meaningful" and "fun." On the other hand, he greatly dislikes work and feels that work is "something I have to do." He has decided to continue on to graduate school, with hopes of becoming "a secondary school teacher or college professor."

Paul says, "I am not sure what will happen to me because of the complexities and injustices of this society's laws and politics." He feels that today's college students are not at all committed to changing the social ills of society. Paul says that he may leave America to find the "good life" -- a goal he sees as almost impossible to attain in his present situation.

Susan Vesper of Metro University

Susan Vesper is 21 years old, white, single, and Presbyterian. She comes from the suburbs of a large Pennsylvania city where her parents both worked. Her father, a college graduate and a professional, and her mother, a "proprietor or manager" with a high school diploma, have a combined income in the $15,000-$20,000 range. She is an Education major and carries a B+ grade point average. She has been seriously seeking employment as a secondary school teacher, but has had no luck. She does hope to find a position by fall 1972, and expects to have a starting salary between $5,000-$8,000. Sue's parents are pleased with her career plans, and they will continue to provide room and board for their daughter for a few more years. This leaves Sue in no particular bind as far as her job situation. She wants a life style similar to that of her parents, and feels that this "good life" will be "easily attainable." Susan Vesper's feelings about work are similar to those expressed by her peers: "I do not want to work just to make money. I want to be able to contribute something to society."

Eugene Simpson of Reeves College

Eugene Simpson came to Reeves from the suburbs of a large Pennsylvania city and hopes to live a different life style from that of his parents. He is 23 years old, Black, and single. He was raised as a Protestant, but now has no religious preference. His father has a "graduate or professional degree beyond the baccalaureate," and is a professional earning $20,000-$25,000. Gene's mother is deceased, but his stepmother is a homemaker.

Gene majors in the Social Sciences, carrying a B- point average. Gene is very rare among college students in that he pays for all of his college education. He receives no aid from his parents, from scholarships, or loans. Carrying the full financial responsibility for his education required Gene to take "between five and six years" to complete his college degree. Gene also has a great dislike for work and wants to just relax for a while after getting his degree, devoting his time to his own interests. He is "uncommitted" towards the future. He does not want to have a family. The only clue that he gives toward a preferred career choice is that he might work for industry, expecting to earn between $12,000-$15,000 at his first job and $20,000-$25,000 in ten years. He says he assumes he will have a good salary and is more concerned with doing relevant things. As for college, Gene echoes the sentiments of many graduates when he says, "It's a relief to get out."

Brenda Long of Reeves College

Brenda Long is a 21 year old Black, raised in a large urban community. She was reared as and still identifies herself as a Baptist, and attends church regularly. Her father, a salesman, had some college background. Her mother has special vocational-technical training and is a "skilled or semi-skilled worker." The family income is between $15,000-$20,000, and Brenda's parents pay for half of her education. Her work savings pay for the rest.

Brenda expects to marry before fall 1972, and her husband will work full time. She herself has "seriously sought but been unable to obtain a job" she was willing to accept, and therefore expects to continue on to graduate school. Brenda majors in Education and reports an A- average. She describes herself as "beautiful," "intelligent," "aggressive," and "confident." She feels that she is "more capable" than most of her peers. When she thinks about work, she feels "unchallenged," "bored," and "poorly motivated." She would like to have a job where she can be useful to society, but at the same time earn some self-satisfaction and fulfillment through advancement and financial reward. She is quite specific in her wants for her life style, and feels confident that she will reach these goals. For Brenda Long, college was "boring," "irrelevant," but "fun."

II. Selected Demographic Variables

The number of students represented from each of the five Pennsylvania schools is fairly comparable with the exception of Reeves (Table 2.1-a). This is due to the small size of its 1972 graduating class. Latham is very slightly over-represented because of its higher response rate. This equality of numbers among the five schools was part of the planned sampling procedure.

Males and females are fairly equally represented in the overall sample - another of the target objectives of the study (Table 2.1-b). However, among individual schools, Latham males are slightly over-represented and conversely, Fletcher and Reeves are a little high for females. The equal representation of males and females in this study poses some problems in attempting to make comparisons to the Davis study, for the latter sample had a sex breakdown of sixty percent (60%) male and forty percent (40%) female. Therefore, in most cases where a comparison between the two studies is made, there is control for the sex of the respondent. Once again, it is important to remember that the nearly equal percentage of males and females is not indicative of any equality in representation of the sexes in Pennsylvania colleges, but was a planned part of the sampling procedure.

In terms of age (Table 2.1-c), over four-fifths of the students are either twenty-one or twenty-two years old; only five percent (5%) of the sample are younger than twenty-one and about one-eighth are older than twenty-two. In contrast, only sixty-five percent (65%) of Davis' sample were either twenty-one or twenty-two. A full thirty percent (30%) were older.

The racial makeup of the sample is nearly ninety percent (90%) white, with virtually all of the remaining ten percent (10%) being Black (Table 2.1-d).

Most of the latter group is from Reeves, which historically has been an institution for Black students. The other schools have a mean sample population of only four percent (4%) Black. Only two Orientals were included in the sample. There were no American Indians, Mexican Americans, nor Puerto Ricans. Eight people circled "other" for their race.

Most of the graduates plan to stay single (86%) until at least the fall of 1972 (Table 2.1-e). Six percent (6%) are married and have children. In the Davis study, one-fourth of the sample were either married or had been married - precisely twice as many as found in this study. This difference in the marital status of the respondents in the two studies is most likely a function of age - Davis found a higher mean age in his sample, and quite logically, more married students.

Table 2.1-f shows that fifteen percent (15%) of the students' parents were unmarried at the time of the survey. Two-thirds of that number were cases where either one or both parents had died. It is interesting to note that a student in this sample is three times more likely to have no father than he is to have no mother.

Later chapters deal more specifically with the college experience and its effects on a number of work-related factors. However, a brief discussion in this chapter of the field of study of our college graduates is profitable, since college major is an important variable which will be referred to many times in this report.

Table 2.1-g shows the distribution of students among the various fields of study. The field of study differences noted in this study when compared to the Davis study are few, and attributable primarily to certain demographic differences in the samples. There are increases in Education and the Social Sciences, but the choice of schools (particularly Reeves, Fletcher, and Metro) and the differences in sex distribution (fifty-fifty percent male-female distribution compared with Davis' sixty-forty percent) are likely explanations for the shifts in field of study. This issue will be addressed in depth in later chapters.

There were one hundred respondents who chose "Other" as the "major academic area in which you will be receiving your baccalaureate degree." Most of these fell into six categories: (1) Majors in Human Development - 26. The College of Human Development at State University (where all of this group of respondents attended school) is an interdisciplinary college, and many students presumably felt that the choices offered them (Social Sciences, Health Professions, etc.) were too narrow or not wholly appropriate for their particular field of study; (2) Majors in the newer Environmental or Physical Sciences - 18; (3) Majors in the Fine Arts - 16; (4) Majors classified under the Humanities - 14; (5) Majors in Journalism - 9; and (6) Majors in Economics - 5. The remaining twelve "Other" responses were widely spread over a number of academic areas.

Table 2.1

Selected Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

2.1-a School

	%	N
State University	22	408
Fletcher State College	22	407
Latham College	25	458
Metro University	21	404
Reeves College	10	183
	100	1860

2.1-b Sex

	%	N
Male	49	908
Female	51	950
	100	1858

2.1-c Age

	%	N
19 or younger	1	6
20	4	68
21	59	1103
22	24	443
23	3	62
24	1	25
25	2	38
26-30	3	59
31 or older	3	52
	100	1856

2.1-d Race

	%	N
Black	9	178
Oriental	1	2
White	89	1660
Other	1	8
	100	1848

2.1-e Marital Status

	%	N
Single	73	1356
Married by Fall 1972	13	243
Married, have children	6	102
Married, no children	7	134
Divorced, separated, widowed	1	17
	100	1852

2.1-f Parent's Marital Status

	%	N
Married	85	1582
Divorced	4	70
Separated	2	39
Mother Deceased	2	39
Father Deceased	6	112
Both Deceased	1	11
	100	1853

2.1-g College Major

	%	N
Business Administration	6	119
Engineering	6	119
Physical Sciences	6	109
Education	35	642
Health Professions	3	48
Biological Sciences	6	103
Agriculture	1	9
Psychology	7	128
Social Sciences	14	262
Humanities	11	203
Other	5	100
	100	1842

Socioeconomic Status

James Davis describes the socioeconomic status of a family as "the possession or lack of possession of the things or characteristics which are preferred in a given society." Variable factors in the determination of one's SES are income, occupation, education, and to a lesser extent, religion and hometown characteristics. Using a procedure very similar to that used by Davis, an index of socioeconomic status was developed by combining three variables in such a way that four distinct SES categories were created. The component variables are parent income, father occupation, and father education. For each of these variables it was possible to attain a score of either zero or one. The scores from each of the three variables are added, creating an index rated in four categories with values from zero to three, with zero being the lowest of the four SES classes, and three being the highest. The recoding of the three component variables was done in the following way:

Father Education	
(0) - no college experience	(1) - college experience

Father Occupation	
(0) - blue collar, unemployed	(1) - white collar

Parent Income	
(0) - $10,000 and under	(1) - over $10,000

A more detailed summary of this combining and recoding of variables is found in Chapter 1, (Methodology). One limitation of this index should be noted, and that is the possible invalidity of the recoding of those students who did not respond to any or all of the three component variables as a zero for the variable(s) to which they did not respond. It was hypothesized that a student who failed to respond to one of these three questions would in most cases be coded as zero if the information were known. The reason for not desiring systematic casewise deletion was that a large number of cases would be lost (13%). Test runs utilizing casewise deletion for students who did not respond to one of the three questions were obtained, compared to those where casewise deletion was bypassed in favor of recoding, and it was determined that in every case the values obtained in the statistical tests for the two separate runs were remarkably valid and would be a superior alternative to casewise deletion for the purpose of this study. The results of the creation of this new variable (referred to throughout the report as "socioeconomic status" or, more briefly, "SES") are found in Table 2.2-k.

Considering each of the socioeconomic status variables separately, we find some interesting results. The income of the students' parents very clearly centers around the $10,000-$15,000 category. In the Davis study, the median income was approximately $7,500. This sharp increase is most probably attributable primarily to economic inflation in the past decade (Table 2.2-a).

As far as father's occupation is concerned, there has been surprisingly little change over the past decade, at least when considering the general categories used in each study (Table 2.2-b). The only clear difference is that the present study shows only one-tenth the number of farmers and farm workers.

There are more skilled and semi-skilled workers in this study, but this may be a function of the kinds of schools that were chosen for the sample. Metro and Fletcher especially contributed to these occupational categories. Over half of the students reported that their mothers were housewives (57%). Another one-fourth were either professionals or clerical workers, with the remainder widely distributed throughout the other categories (Table 2.2-c).

Forty-one percent (41%) of the students's fathers had college experience, virtually equal to the number found in the Davis study (Table 2.1-d). However, the category labeled "vocational-technical school" was not included in Davis' questionnaire, and it seems very probable that those 1961 graduates whose fathers had had educational training beyond high school in a vocational-technical school may have been forced into responding "some college" or "college graduate." Therefore the comparison may be misleading. However, one difference in the two studies which is notable is the fifteen percent (15%) difference in the number of fathers who did not graduate from high school (24% to 39%). The mothers' educational attainment (Table 2.2-e) varies from that of the fathers most notably in two categories: "high school graduate," where there are sixteen percent (16%) fewer fathers (25% to 41%); and "holders of graduate degrees," where there are four times as many fathers as there are mothers (13% to 3%).

Although not included in the SES index, religious preference and ethnicity have proved to be in many cases good predictor variables (Tables 2.2-f to j). Whether they are purely status indices is difficult to evaluate; there are many social and psychological implications. Nevertheless, the frequency distributions for these variables make for some salient suggestions. The most striking of these is that religion and the churches are losing influence with college-age people. The Davis study reports that eighty-five percent (85%) of his senior respondents were in the same religion at graduation as that in which they were raised. The present study reports only about two-thirds. A religious-fall index was created (See Chapter 1) showing that seventy percent (70%) of those included in the frequency distribution are traditional; that is, in the same religion as that in which they were raised. However, this percentage does not include those who went from Catholic to Protestant, Protestant to Other, and so forth. It is not clear whether these people should be classified as traditional or not. Therefore, for the total sample, only two out of three maintained their original religious affiliations. Davis noted a nine percent (9%) increase in the "nones" - from original religion to present no-religion status, whereas in the present study there is an increase of twenty-seven percent (27%). One-third of the Protestants, one-third of the Roman Catholics, and one-fifth of the Jews dropped their religious affiliations by the time they reached graduation.

An examination of the 113 students circling "Other" as their original religious preference shows that about half are Fundamentalist Protestants of some specific faith (Baptist, Methodist, etc.). Another half-dozen are Greek Catholic, fourteen are Orthodox, twelve are non-denominational Christians, and the rest are widely scattered. The pattern for the 146 "Other" responses for the students' present religious preference was much the same. The only variation was a slight moving away from the organized or conservative religions, and a few additions of several non-Western religions as well as a number of "personal" religions.

The religiosity of the college graduates (measured in terms of how often one attends church) shows that only one out of four attend church regularly. On the other hand, about eighty percent (80%) do attend church, even if it is only rarely. Chapter 3 (The Respondents - What They Believe) presents additional discussion of religious impact and religiosity.

Ethnic background is another variable that was created from other variables. A brief discussion of how this index was created is therefore profitable before an evaluation of the results are discussed. Two variables, present religious preference and national origins, were combined by looking at a two-way frequency distribution, deleting the smallest categories (there were potentially 85 ethnic groups), and simply recoding the original variables. One-eighth of the total sample of 1,860 were not included in this index, for the reason that many of the possible categories were too small with which to work (e.g. Scandinavian Catholic, Italian Protestant). Therefore, the percentages for categories that exist in other variables (Jews, Blacks, "nones") do not exactly match those in the ethnic background index. The "no religion" category is the largest with twenty-nine percent (29%), followed by the German and Anglo-Saxon Protestants and Blacks. These four groups make up sixty percent (60%) of the total sample, and two-thirds of the respondents included in the index. Various Catholic groups comprise another one-fourth of the sample. The value of ethnic background as a predictor variables will be discussed at length in later chapters. It has some surprising implications in such areas as work attitudes, self-reported personality characteristics, career expectations and desires, and life styles.

When compared to the results of the Davis study, the SES variables of hometown and future hometown (Table 2.2-1 and m) reflect many of the general population trends of the past decade. There is a five percent (5%) decrease in the numbers of students coming from rural areas, a fourteen percent (14%) decrease in those living in a central city (be it large or small), and a fifteen percent (15%) increase in the numbers of students living in the suburbs of metropolitan areas. The present study also elicits a comparison between the hometown of a respondent and the future hometown he desires. Most of the categories show a low rate of defection; that is, a person raised in one type of hometown setting is most likely to wish to make his future home in the same setting. Exceptions to this are the small cities and the metropolitan areas with a population of over two million (whether city or suburb), in which the trend is away from a return. The big gainer is the college community, a category not included in Davis' questionnaire. It shows a jump from three percent (3%) to fifteen percent (15%). It will be seen that despite the disenchantment associated with the college experience, the college community itself is perceived, by some students at least, as a sanctuary. The comments of a number of graduating seniors would certainly suggest that the college community does incorporate a number of desirable characteristics. Primarily, students feel that it is the one setting in which they can be spared the negative features of the big city and still enjoy some flexibility in the pursuit of a chosen life style. There is also a fairly large gain (17% to 25%) in the number of graduates who would like to set up their homes in rural areas. Many students express a desire for a life style setting with minimal problems of transportation, environmental pollution, and personal security. The emphasis on a rural setting also reflects a desire on the part of some students for a more simple life, where one can enjoy and be part of the land. These gains

Table 2.2

Socioeconomic Status of the Sample

2.2-a Parent Income

	%	N
Less than $5000	4	78
$5000-$7499	8	151
$7500-$9999	14	259
$10,000-$14,999	28	519
$15,000-$19,999	14	257
$20,000-$24,999	9	173
$25,000-$29,999	5	84
$30,000-$40,000	3	60
Over $40,000	4	69
I have no idea	10	182
Parent's deceased	1	4
	100	1786

2.2-b Father Occupation

	%	N
Housewife	1	3
Professional	26	480
Proprietor, Manager	20	373
Sales	7	131
Clerical	3	58
Skilled, semi-skill	33	610
Unskilled	5	84
Farmer, farm worker	1	14
Not employed	3	47
Father deceased	1	26
	100	1826

2.2-c Mother Occupation

	%	N
Housewife	57	1044
Professional	11	209
Proprietor, Manager	2	38
Sales	4	70
Clerical	13	237
Skilled, semi-skill	8	156
Unskilled	3	60
Farmer, farm worker	0	1
Not employed	1	20
Mother deceased	1	7
	100	1842

2.2-d Father Educational Attainment

	%	N
8th grade or less	11	211
Some high school	13	235
High school graduate	25	469
Vo-tech school	8	158
Some college	12	218
College graduate	16	295
Graduate degree(s)	13	237
I don't know	1	17
Father deceased	1	3
	100	1843

2.2-e Mother Educational Attainment

	%	N
8th grade or less	7	124
Some high school	14	251
High school graduate	41	767
Vo-tech school	9	169
Some college	11	200
College graduate	14	257
Graduate degree(s)	3	59
I don't know	1	17
Mother deceased	0	2
	100	1846

2.2-f Religion in which Reared

	%	N
Protestant	52	965
Roman Catholic	34	621
Jewish	7	119
Other	6	113
None	1	23
	100	1841

2.2-g Present Religious Preference

	%	N
Protestant	35	644
Roman Catholic	24	427
Jewish	5	96
Other	8	146
None	28	516
	100	1829

Table 2.2 (cont'd.)

2.2-h Religious Fall

	%	N
Traditional	71	1117
Non-traditional	29	466
	100	1583

2.2-i Religiosity

	%	N
Regularly	26	482
Occasionally	28	510
Rarely	28	515
Not at All	18	343
	100	1850

2.2-j Ethnic Background

	%	N
Anglo-Saxon Protestant	11	177
German Protestant	17	283
Scandinavian Protestant	1	21
Irish Catholic	5	73
German Catholic	4	64
Italian Catholic	7	111
Polish Catholic	4	60
Jewish	6	96
No Religion	29	472
Black	11	178
Slavic Protestant	1	21
Slavic Catholic	4	72
	100	1628

2.2-k Socioeconomic Status

	%	N
Very Low	30	561
Middle Low	22	416
Middle High	19	348
Very High	29	535
	100	1860

2.2-l Hometown

	%	N
Farm, open country	17	315
College community	3	62
Suburb 2 million +	11	209
Suburb 500,000 +	11	190
Suburb 100,000 +	11	193
Suburb 100,000 -	17	317
City 2 million +	7	123
City 500,000 +	4	81
City 100,000 +	3	50
City 50,000 +	4	69
City 10,000 +	6	107
City 10,000 -	6	116
	100	1832

2.2-m Future Hometown (desired)

	%	N
Farm, open country	25	453
College community	15	271
Suburb 2 million +	5	103
Suburb 500,000 +	10	179
Suburb 100,000 +	11	202
Suburb 100,000 -	18	327
City 2 million +	4	70
City 500,000 +	4	68
City 100,000 +	2	33
City 50,000 +	2	36
City 10,000 +	2	47
City 10,000 -	2	35
	100	1824

in the rural and college communities are balanced by the distaste for city life (especially big city and small town life). There is a decrease of fifteen percent (15%) or, put more dramatically, one-half of those students who lived in a city have changed their hometown preference. In summary, the trend in life settings is away from the problematic, dehumanized environment of the big metropolitan areas, away from the isolated, routine environment of the small city, and toward the perceived relative social and intellectual freedom of the college community and the physical freedom of rural life.

Three-Way Frequency Distributions of Selected Demographic Variables

One very important variable in this study is the school which the student attended. Because the schools were not randomly selected, but chosen in such a way that certain demographic variables were somewhat predetermined, it is important to be aware of the demographic differences from school to school and to be wary of the degree of external validity with this type of sampling procedure. Therefore, to better understand the kind of people with whom this study is dealing and the degree of representativeness of the sample, multivariate frequency distributions involving the student's school will be charted and interpreted. The major areas that will be discussed in this section are sex, field of study, socioeconomic status, race, religious preference, hometown, and ethnic background.

Despite the overall even distribution of the sexes in the sample, there are discrepancies at several of the schools. State University and Metro are exceptions, with both sub-samples reflecting a fifty-fifty sex distribution. Fletcher and Reeves each show 3:5 male-female ratio, with Latham balancing the overall sex distribution with 2:1 male-female ratio. These school-sex differences are related to some of the discussions later in the report, and should be kept in mind.

The school attended by a respondent is strongly related to his field of study, although it is far from clear if a student chooses a school to suit his field of study; if his field of study is a function of the alternatives presented him at his school; or if there are other related variables that are more important in the decision of field of study (e.g SES, personality). (See Table 2 3)

Reeves and Fletcher are comprised predominately of Education majors. At Reeves, sixty percent (60%) of the males and eighty-five percent (85%) of the females are in Education. Most of the rest are in the Social Sciences, with several in the Humanities and the Physical and Biological Sciences. Fletcher has precisely the same breakdown of Education majors as does Reeves. Those remaining are made up of (in order of representation) Social Science, Psychology, Humanities, and other science majors. The other three schools are represented in most of the given categories. State University has all nine of the Agriculture majors, and Metro has over three-fourths of the Health Profession majors (both male and female). Virtually all of the Business Administration majors are found at State University and Latham, half of them at each school. Similarly, all of the Engineers are relatively evenly distributed at these two schools and Metro. The Physical and Biological Science majors are more evenly distributed at each school, with Latham and Metro being somewhat overrepresented

Table 2.3

School, Sex, and Field of Study

School	Busin. Admin.		Engin.		Physi. Scien.		Educa.		Health Profe.		Biolo. Scien.	
	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F
State U.	24	5	19	0	6	1	7	41	1	4	6	5
Fletcher	1	0	0	0	5	1	55	84	0	0	3	2
Latham	18	4	19	1	10	9	2	20	0	1	8	11
Metro	1	0	13	0	10	8	9	28	4	14	10	4
Reeves	0	0	0	0	10	0	59	85	2	0	2	5
Total %	12	2	13	1	8	4	18	51	1	4	6	5

School	Agric.		Psych.		Socio. Scien.		Human.		Other		N	
	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M	F
State U.	4	1	5	8	12	12	5	7	11	18	(204)	(200)
Fletcher	0	0	5	2	21	5	8	4	3	2	(150)	(255)
Latham	0	0	8	13	15	6	14	30	8	4	(295)	(159)
Metro	0	0	5	17	36	10	12	18	2	1	(190)	(212)
Reeves	0	0	0	0	25	8	3	3	0	0	(63)	(112)
Total %	1	0	5	8	21	8	10	12	6	5	(902)	(938)

Fletcher and Reeves somewhat underrepresented. Psychology majors are found at every school but Reeves. They are otherwise normally distributed, with the exception of the females at Metro and Latham, who together account for three-fourths of the female Psychology majors; and Fletcher, which is so predominately Education as to be underrepresented in nearly every other field of study. Social Science majors are found at every school in relatively high proportions. Metro is particularly high in Social Science majors, where over one-third of the males (though only 10% of the females) are in this field of study. The Humanities are relatively underrepresented at Reeves, Fletcher, and State University.

There are significant differences in SES from school to school (Table 2 4). It seems clear that an individual's SES is at least partially a determining factor in the choice of one's school, whether it be direct or indirect By far, Latham shows the highest mean SES for both males and females. State University is fairly evenly distributed for the four SES categories, but the females show a slight overrepresentation in the higher SES groups. Metro shows a somewhat low mean SES, but only for the males. Metro females, as it turns out, are a very interesting sub-sample. Certain of these SES and religious-ethnic characteristics play a strong role in the determination of the work and life style attitudes that the Metro females as a group hold. These relationships will be discussed in later chapters. Fletcher shows a SES distribution very similar to Metro. The males clearly have a low mean SES, but it is much lower than that of their female counterparts, whose modal SES score was in the mid-low group. Reeves shows over half of their students in the lowest of the four SES categories, mostly a function of the school's racial makeup. Blacks are highly overrepresented in the low SES categories. With the exception of Reeves, each of the schools has between ninety-seven percent (97%) and ninety-nine percent (99%) white students in the sample. Reeves is eighty-six percent (86%) Black, but a sex breakdown shows that only eight percent (8%) of the white students at Reeves are females. The racial makeup at Reeves accounts for many of the differences that the school exhibited in the data analysis (Table 2.5).

Although the tables are not presented here, it is important to follow the school-sex-SES relationships with respect to the specific variables that make up the SES index. Concerning parent income, one can see a fairly normal curve around the median income of $10,000-$15,000 (Table 2.2-a). A cross tabulation of income by school and sex shows great variation among the several groups. Males and females report comparable parent incomes, but the females are more likely to not know how much their parents are making. Presumably, the males, who are generally more likely to need employment, are more aware of family income than are females. Latham, where the median family income is about $20,000, has the majority of those students whose families incomes are over $30,000. State University is represented normally in most of the income brackets with the exception of their somewhat greater number in the middle income brackets ($7,500-$15,000). Fletcher, very low in the high income brackets, is overrepresented in the $5,000-$7,500 income class. Metro and Reeves, both underrepresented in the over $20,000 income brackets, show their largest percentages in the very low and middle income categories (under $5,000 to $15,000).

Similar social class characteristics appear for the father's occupational status among the five schools. Overall, professionals, proprietor/managers, and skilled/semi-skilled workers make up four-fifths of the responses (Table 2.2-b). With the exception of State University, which again is normally

Table 2.4

School, Sex, and SES

SCHOOL	VERY LOW SES		MID LOW SES		MID HIGH SES		VERY HIGH SES		N	
	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M	F
State U.	25	27	25	24	19	19	31	30	(204)	(204)
Fletcher	37	32	25	30	20	20	18	19	(151)	(256)
Latham	14	24	13	8	21	16	52	52	(297)	(161)
Metro	33	35	28	24	22	18	17	23	(191)	(213)
Reeves	42	60	35	22	11	11	12	6	(65)	(116)
TOTAL %	26	34	22	22	20	18	32	26	(908)	(950)

Table 2.5

School, Sex, and Race

SCHOOL	BLACK		ORIENTAL		WHITE		OTHER		N	
	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M	F
State U.	1	3	0	0	98	96	1	1	(204)	(204)
Fletcher	1	1	1	0	98	99	0	0	(150)	(254)
Latham	1	1	0	1	98	97	1	1	(296)	(160)
Metro	2	2	0	0	97	98	1	0	(190)	(213)
Reeves	65	98	0	0	35	2	0	0	(63)	(112)
TOTAL %	6	13	0	0	93	87	1	0	(903)	(943)

represented in each of the occupational categories, there is heavy grouping of these three occupational categories according to their social class standing for the other schools. Professionals are highly concentrated at Latham, as are proprietor/managers. Both of these categories are somewhat underrepresented at Reeves and Fletcher, and professionals are also less likely to be found at Metro. These three schools are somewhat high in their percentages for skilled workers (Latham is very low), but of the 84 graduates who said their fathers were unskilled workers, nearly half were from Metro.

"Mother occupation" is another SES variable which shows interesting sex and school variations. Female college students are significantly more likely to have working mothers than are male college students. Fletcher and Reeves are the two schools that overreport working mothers. These two schools show percentages that are significantly higher than the mean in both the skilled/semi-skilled and unskilled and working categories. As expected, the mothers of Latham students are very likely to be professionals.

A similar pattern is found for "father educational attainment." Fletcher, Reeves, and Metro graduates are very low in the percentages of fathers with college experience, and the first two are overrepresented in the grade school/high school dropout categories. Metro graduates have a very high percentage of fathers going to vocational-technical school. Latham graduates, on the other hand, have fathers who make up one-half of the college graduate and graduate degree categories. One-half of the sixteen respondents who said that they did not know their father's educational attainment were from Reeves.

Although the mothers of our college students are slightly less likely to get a college degree and very less likely to continue on for graduate degrees, they are a good bit more likely to make it through high school. They are simply more likely to stop at that point in the educational process. The school differences found for "mother educational attainment" are very similar to those found for "father educational attainment."

Another important difference is found in the relative SES ratings of males and females in the sample. Females are significantly more likely to be from the lowest SES category (34% to 26%), and are less likely to come from the highest SES category (26% to 32%). However, this relationship holds up much stronger at Reeves than in the remaining schools, most probably because of the sex differences in racial makeup at that school. Virtually all of the female students at Reeves are Black, as opposed to only two-thirds of the males.

As expected, there are many differences in the hometown of the respondents with respect to school, although there are none with regard to sex (Table 2.6). State University students come from many different hometown settings, being widely distributed throughout both large and small cities as well as the suburbs. They are somewhat overrepresented in the rural hometown category. Fletcher students come primarily from the suburbs and central areas of the surrounding medium-sized cities, and from the rural areas of that section of the state. Whereas State University attracts students from all over the state, Fletcher apparently is very localized, which is reasonable considering the size of the schools. Latham, as is deducible from the relatively high SES of that sub-sample, draws its students both from within and out of state, from the suburbs (primarily from suburbs of very large cities), college communities, and the surrounding rural areas. Metro, located in a large city, draws many of its students from that city. Others are from the many suburbs and small cities

Table 2.6

School, Sex, and Hometown

School	Farm or Open Country		College Community		Suburb 2 Million+		Suburb 500,000+		Suburb 100,000+		Suburb 100,000-		City 2 Million+		City 500,000+		City 100,000+		City 50,000+		City 10,000+		City 10,000-		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
State U	26	21	3	3	11	11	11	10	7	7	16	19	6	9	3	2	1	3	5	2	6	6	5	6	(204)	(201)
Fletcher	15	26	4	6	1	4	2	5	23	15	19	22	1	1	0	2	5	6	11	4	7	4	11	7	(150)	(254)
Latham	13	11	4	8	27	23	9	15	13	13	14	13	4	2	3	2	2	1	1	1	6	4	5	7	(292)	(159)
Metro	16	13	1	1	7	8	20	18	5	9	21	17	3	4	6	9	2	1	3	4	8	9	7	7	(190)	(210)
Reeves	13	9	2	3	6	3	5	1	3	3	13	13	35	36	10	15	2	2	3	7	6	4	3	5	(63)	(107)
TOTAL %	17	18	3	4	14	10	11	10	11	10	17	18	6	8	3	5	2	3	4	3	7	5	6	6	(899)	(931)

on the periphery of that urban area. Metro also draws students from many parts of the state as well as from bordering states. Located in a small city and predominately an institution for Blacks, Reeves College has half of its student body coming from the central part of the nearby large city. However, the remaining fifty percent (50%) are very widely spread throughout the other hometown categories. The least represented categories are the large city suburbs, where the mean is over three times greater than the actual representation for Reeves. Again, this distribution is easily explained by the racial makeup of the school.

The relation of SES to hometown is also charted (Table 2.7). Several important relationships between school and SES again manifest themselves. The two categories with the highest mean SES are the suburbs of very large cities and the college communities - precisely the categories where the school with the highest mean SES rating (Latham) is overrepresented. There are two differences by sex in this frequency distribution: First, there are more lower SES females in the small cities (this is most probably the effect of the Fletcher females; who are represented more than their male counterparts); and Second, although the two large city categories have the lowest mean SES for both sexes, it is significantly lower for the females (this is probably best explained by the effects of the greater representation of Reeves females).

Although there is some degree of fealty to one's original hometown setting, the college socialization process evidently diminishes the school-SES relation to hometown to some degree, as is shown by a comparison of Table 2.6 with Table 2.8, the latter dealing with the future hometown preference of the respondents. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the trend is away from city life and toward life in a rural or college setting. There is a trend toward evenness in the distribution for each school in each hometown category, although it is far from being normally distributed.

An examination of the religious orientation of the respondents from each school greatly helps in understanding more about the kind of students who attend each school. Table 2.9 shows the relationship between school, sex, and original religion. State University is somewhat overrepresented in Roman Catholics, as well as Jewish females. Fletcher has very few Jews, and somewhat more Protestant females than expected, with a corresponding underrepresentation of Roman Catholics. Protestants are somewhat overrepresented at Latham, where there are relatively few Roman Catholics. Half of the Jewish males are at Latham, yet only six percent (6%) of the Jewish females in the sample attend that school. Metro students are far less likely to be Protestant than anything else, but that statement applies particularly to the females. One-third of the Roman Catholic females and over half of the Jewish females in the sample attend Metro. There are no Jews at Reeves College, and relatively few Roman Catholics. Most of the respondents checked "Protestants" or "Other" as their religious background. An item analysis showed that virtually all of the Reeves students giving "Other" as the religions in which they were reared were Baptists.

An analysis of the present religious preference of the respondents shows a lessening of the school differences (Table 2.10). The religious characteristics of the sample as discussed in the preceding paragraph all hold for present religious preference, with the qualification that all three of the major religions (Protestant, Roman Catholic, and Jewish) lost between twenty to thirty-five percent (20-35%) of their members. There were more male defectors than females, but both sexes contributed heavily to the "none" category. Latham was the leader among schools in the number of defectors for both sexes. Fletcher females were

Table 2.7

SES, Sex, and Hometown

SES	Farm or Open Country		College Community		Suburb 2 Million+		Suburb 500,000+		Suburb 100,000+	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%	
Very Low	19	21	3	3	6	7	10	8	9	8
Mid Low	18	20	2	2	8	6	12	6	10	11
Mid High	21	18	3	4	14	10	11	12	10	9
Very High	11	12	4	7	24	16	10	16	14	13
TOTAL %	17	12	3	4	14	10	11	10	11	10

	Suburb 100,000-		City 2 Million+		City 500,000+		City 100,000+		City 50,000+	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%	
Very Low	20	14	8	13	4	8	3	2	5	4
Mid Low	18	18	8	7	4	7	2	3	4	6
Mid High	15	20	3	5	3	2	3	5	3	2
Very High	15	21	4	3	2	2	3	2	4	1
TOTAL %	17	18	6	8	3	5	2	3	4	3

	City 10,000+		City 10,000-		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%	
Very Low	9	7	6	5	(234)	(308)
Mid Low	6	5	8	9	(203)	(212)
Mid High	8	7	7	6	(178)	(164)
Very High	4	2	5	6	(284)	(247)
TOTAL %	7	5	6	6	(899)	(931)

Table 2.8

School, Sex, and Desired Future Hometown

School	Farm or Open Country		College Community		Suburb 2 Million+		Suburb 500,000+		Suburb 100,000+	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%	
State U	25	21	15	21	8	5	11	9	13	13
Fletcher	40	35	4	7	0	4	3	5	12	14
Latham	26	21	22	33	9	6	13	8	9	10
Metro	18	15	13	13	5	7	17	11	8	11
Reeves	26	22	12	3	3	4	10	9	10	9
TOTAL %	26	24	15	15	6	5	12	8	10	12

School	Suburb 100,000-		City 2 Million+		City 500,000+		City 100,000+		City 50,000+	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%	
State U	14	13	3	6	3	7	2	1	3	3
Fletcher	34	30	2	1	1	1	2	4	3	2
Latham	12	12	4	2	2	1	1	1	1	1
Metro	20	19	4	6	6	8	1	4	1	2
Reeves	12	30	10	7	8	5	0	1	2	4
TOTAL %	16	20	4	4	3	4	1	2	2	2

School	City 10,000+		City 10,000-		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%	
State U	3	1	1	1	(203)	(198)
Fletcher	3	1	6	2	(149)	(255)
Latham	2	3	1	2	(289)	(159)
Metro	5	3	2	1	(190)	(210)
Reeves	5	2	3	5	(61)	(108)
TOTAL %	3	2	2	2	(892)	(930)

Table 2.9

School, Sex, and Original Religion

School	Protestant		Roman Catholic		Jewish		Other		None		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%			
State U	45	43	41	40	8	8	5	7	1	2	(204)	(202)
Fletcher	57	68	39	27	2	1	2	3	0	1	(150)	(254)
Latham	63	66	21	26	12	2	2	4	2	3	(294)	(161)
Metro	39	28	47	53	9	12	5	6	6	1	(190)	(213)
Reeves	57	60	21	11	0	0	18	28	3	1	(61)	(110)
TOTAL %	53	52	34	34	8	5	5	8	1	2	(899)	(940)

Table 2.10

School, Sex, and Present Religious Preference

	Protestant		Roman Catholic		Jewish		Other		None		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%			
State U	29	30	25	28	6	6	7	9	32	27	(202)	(202)
Fletcher	40	56	23	24	2	2	6	4	30	14	(149)	(254)
Latham	34	39	14	19	8	3	6	4	39	35	(292)	(161)
Metro	27	19	32	35	8	10	8	9	25	28	(190)	(211)
Reeves	43	42	15	11	0	0	12	26	30	21	(60)	(106)
TOTAL %	33	38	22	25	6	4	7	9	32	24	(893)	(934)

the least likely of all groups to drop their religion. A summary of the defection rates for each school and sex, as well as for the SES are examined in Tables 2.12 and 2.13, dealing with religious fall of the respondents.

Present religious preference as related to SES and sex is shown in Table 2.11. Protestants are nearly evenly distributed throughout the four classes, with only a slight tendency towards the two middle groups. Roman Catholics are represented most in the two lowest SES categories, but this distribution should not be construed to be more than a mild trend. The Jews, particularly the males, are found predominately in the two higher SES classes. One-half of the Jewish males are in the highest SES category. Another interesting group are those who checked "none" as their religious preference. They are somewhat overrepresented in the higher SES groups, showing a mild trend that is consistent from group to group for both sexes.

Table 2.14 shows the distribution of various ethnic groups throughout the five schools. As is the case with most of the demographic items, State University shows the most variability. Over one-third of the students sampled at Fletcher are German Protestant. Nearly half of the females are in that group. However, only a quarter of the males are German Protestant, as males are somewhat more widely distributed among different ethnic groups. Both sexes were underrepresented in Jews and Polish Catholics. Latham students are likely to be Anglo-Saxon of Scandinavian Protestant, and relatively unlikely to be Catholic (especially the males). As was mentioned earlier in the chapter, Latham is characteristically high for the category of no-religion, as well as for Jewish males. Metro on the other hand, is very Catholic (especially

Table 2.11

SES, Sex, and Present Religious Preference

SES	PROTESTANT		ROMAN CATHOLIC		JEWISH		OTHER		NONE		N	
	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M %	F	M	F
Very Low	29	35	30	29	3	3	8	12	30	22	(236)	(309)
Mid-Low	34	42	25	30	4	2	7	8	30	18	(198)	(212)
Mid-High	39	42	18	21	7	6	4	6	32	27	(179)	(165)
Very High	31	35	15	19	10	7	8	8	36	31	(280)	(248)
TOTAL %	33	38	22	25	6	4	7	9	32	25	(893)	(934)

Table 2.12

SES, Sex, and Religious Fall

SES	Traditional		Non Traditional		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%			
Very Low	70	78	30	22	(201)	(236)
Mid-Low	67	80	33	20	(177)	(186)
Mid-High	68	74	32	26	(167)	(150)
Very High	62	67	38	33	(247)	(219)
Total %	66	75	34	25	(792)	(791)

Table 2.13

School, Sex, and Religious Fall

School	Traditional		Non Traditional		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%			
State U.	67	71	33	29	(180)	(170)
Fletcher	69	86	31	14	(135)	(232)
Latham	60	65	40	35	(264)	(142)
Metro	73	70	28	30	(167)	(178)
Reeves	72	77	28	23	(46)	(69)
Total %	66	75	34	25	(792)	(791)

Table 2.14

School, Sex, and Ethnic Background

School	Anglo-Saxon Protestant		German Protestant		Scandinavian Protestant		Irish Catholic		German Catholic	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%	
State U	9	15	19	13	1	1	3	8	6	4
Fletcher	12	12	27	41	0	2	4	3	5	4
Latham	13	16	16	16	2	3	4	4	2	2
Metro	10	9	11	8	1	1	6	8	5	7
Reeves	7	1	2	1	2	0	0	0	2	0
TOTAL %	11	11	16	18	1	2	4	5	4	4

	Italian Catholic		Polish Catholic		Jewish		White, no Religion		Black	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%	
State U	7	8	6	4	7	7	35	31	1	4
Fletcher	7	9	3	1	2	2	32	16	2	1
Latham	3	6	2	2	10	3	44	41	1	1
Metro	11	8	8	8	10	11	28	30	2	3
Reeves	7	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	71	98
TOTAL %	7	7	4	3	7	5	34	24	7	15

	Slavic Protestant		Slavic Catholic		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%	
State U	1	1	6	4	(178)	(172)
Fletcher	3	2	3	7	(136)	(226)
Latham	0	1	3	4	(250)	(140)
Metro	4	1	5	7	(168)	(186)
Reeves	0	0	2	0	(58)	(112)
TOTAL %	2	1	4	5	(790)	(836)

Polish Catholic), and is the least likely of the four schools discussed thus far to be Protestant. There is a surprisingly high percentage of Jews at Metro; both sexes are overrepresented. The Metro females account for one-half of the Jews in the sample of that sex. Reeves College, of course, is predominately Black, showing very little variation in ethnic grpups.

There are corresponding differences from one ethnic group to another with respect to SES and sex (Table 2.15). Jews, Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian Protestants, and those with no religion are the four groups with the highest mean SES for both sexes. These are the same groups that are overrepresented at Latham. Blacks and Polish Catholics are found predominately at the other end of the SES scale, again lending understanding to the close relationships between school, SES, and religious-ethnic attributes.

IV. Personality Characteristics and Work Attitudes Related to Selected Demographic Variables

A lengthy explanation of the development of two indices, the first dealing with self-reported personality characteristics and the second with work attitudes, is presented in Chapter 1 (Methodology). The tables and analysis that follow are based on the assumption that the reader has referred to this discussion in the first chapter.

The frequency distributions of the original self-reported personality characteristics and work attitudes are shown in Tables 2.16 and 2.17. They are plotted in relative positions on a vertical percentage scale. There were four possible responses to each of the 36 personality items: "Most like me," "Somewhat like me," "Somewhat unlike me," and "Not like me." The percentages are based on those who responded in the affirmative ("Most like me" or "Somewhat like me"). Similarly, for the 23 work-attitude statements, one could respond in five different ways: "Strongly agree," "Mildly agree," "Mildly disagree," "Strongly disagree," or "Irrelevant to me." The percentages shown in this scale are again based on those who responded in the affirmative ("Strongly agree" or "Mildly agree"), not including those who responded "Irrelevant to me."

In comparison with the findings of the Davis study, one finds few notable differences in the self-reported personality scales. Furthermore, there is no evidence in the NORC report indicating analysis beyond the presentation of frequency distributions for each item. The most frequently checked item in the Davis study was "cooperative." The least frequently checked item in our study is "uncooperative." Where comparisons are possible between the two scales, the differences are slight. More fruitful results are obtained by comparing other variables to the personality items through the use of the constructed factors described in Chapter 1.

Figure 2.17 shows the frequency of the self-reported work attitudes of the respondents, offering some interesting and encouraging data about how college seniors perceive the world of work. Relevancy and personal involvement in work would seem to be the number one concern of our respondents (four of the top six items deal with these issues). Over eighty-five percent (85%) of the students respond positively to the statement "I like to work," which contrasts with only half of them saying that "most people like to work."

Table 2.15

SES, Sex, and Ethnic Background

SES	Anglo-Saxon Protestant		German Protestant		Scandinavian Protestant		Irish Catholic		German Catholic	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%	
Very Low	6	6	15	14	1	1	6	5	6	6
Mid Low	9	13	18	19	1	2	2	7	4	3
Mid High	14	17	19	25	2	0	3	3	2	4
Very High	13	13	15	19	1	4	4	5	4	3
TOTAL %	11	11	16	18	1	2	4	5	4	4

	Italian Catholic		Polish Catholic		Jewish		White, no Religion		Black	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%	
Very Low	8	6	7	5	4	4	29	21	13	27
Mid Low	8	9	6	4	4	3	31	17	10	15
Mid High	7	6	4	2	8	6	35	24	3	8
Very High	4	7	1	2	12	7	40	35	2	4
TOTAL %	7	7	4	3	7	5	34	24	7	15

	Slavic Protestant		Slavic Catholic		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%	
Very Low	1	1	4	7	(208)	(272)
Mid Low	3	3	5	6	(178)	(188)
Mid High	2	1	3	5	(163)	(157)
Very High	1	0	3	2	(241)	(219)
TOTAL %	2	1	4	5	(790)	(836)

Table 2.16

Frequency of Self-reported Personality Characteristics*

Percent	100	
		Intelligent
		Honest
	95	Thoughtful
		Mature
		Loving
		Fun-loving
	90	Hardworking
		Practical
		Logical
		Moral
		Insightful
		Serious
	85	Cautious
		Easy-going
		Optimistic
	80	Ambitious
		Idealistic
		Confident
		Analytical
		Competitive
	70	Involved
		Athletic
		A leader
	60	Beautiful
		Impulsive
		An intellectual
	50	Aggressive
		Insecure
	40	Cynical
		Uncommitted
	30	Very religious
		Alienated
	20	Hung-up
		Unhappy
		Hostile
	10	Uncooperative
	0	

*NOTE: The percentages above are based on the particular N for each variable, the total N size for each variable ranging from 1823 to 1860.

Table 2.17

Frequency of Self-reported Work Attitudes*

Percent 100

90

I assume I will have a good income. I'm more concerned with finding a job where I will do relevant things.

I like to work.

85 My private life will not be sacrificed to make more money.

I would not work for an organization that carried out policies I think are wrong.

The kind of work I do matters more than whether I do it for government, business, a university, or an independent organization.

80

Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of personal effort.

70 Work is a good builder of character.

Little useful guidance is provided for making career choices.

60 Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of hard work.

50 Most people like to work.

Few jobs let a person be creative.

45 I would rather not take a job in business.

In our society, anyone who is physically able and wants to can find a job.

40 Hard work makes you a better person.

I'm worried that my job will be boring and monotonous.

There is no place for rebels in large organizations.

35 I have a pretty good idea of what I want to do with my life, but I'm not sure there is any way for me to do it.

The most important part of work to me is earning enough money to do what I want.

A job is a way of making a living, not a way of life.

30 Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of how much you know.

20 My career will be the most important thing in my life.

To me, work is nothing more than a way of making a living.

To be really successful in life, you must care about making money.

10

0

*NOTE: The percentages above are based on the particular N for each variable, the total N size for each variable ranging from 1830 to 1860.

However, only one out of five feel that "My career will be the most important thing in my life." Even fewer agree that "Work is nothing more than a way of making a living." Material gain as a primary goal in one's life is highly disdained. Our college seniors evidently feel that work is a very important dimension of life, offering an opportunity to contribute one's talents to others through activities which are meaningful and exciting to them. Nevertheless, it is not, in general, the most important dimension of their lives. Perhaps their priorities are such that private considerations would override the importance of work, as evidenced by the high positive response rate (over 80%) to the following statements: "My private life will not be sacrificed to make more money," "I would not work for an organization that carried out policies I think are wrong," and "The kind of work I do matters more than whether I do it for government, business, a university, or an independent organization."

Table 2.18 shows the scores of the five schools on the various personality factors. State University shows little variation from the mean on any of the factors, with the exception of the males for being "practical, logical, and cautious." At Fletcher, both sexes show a mild tendency to score positively on the "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" factor. The males are otherwise evenly distributed, but the females show several interesting variations. Their religiosity is apparent in the "moral, religious, honest" factor on which they score positively. They apparently feel they are well-adjusted and happy, as evidenced by their score of -2 on the "hostile, alienated, unhappy" factor. Latham males, more than any other group, tend to report themselves as being unhappy and insecure. They also score considerably more negative on the "practical, logical, cautious" factor. Females at Latham are similar to the males in these respects, but less so. They are, in addition, the most negative scoring group for the "moral, religious, honest" and "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" factors. The former suggests that the Latham females are the least traditional of the five school groups with respect to religion. However, the latter indicates the opposite with regard to sex roles. Interestingly enough, although the Latham females tend to rate themselves as relatively conservative with respect to sex roles, they are actually somewhat liberal in their behavior. This is probably a function of this group's high SES. Metro shows very little variation among the eight personality factors, with the puzzling exception of the females, who on the "hostile, alienated, unhappy" factor score a positive two. Reeves students (both male and female) score extremely high on the "beautiful, loving, thoughtful" factor, and considerably high on the "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" and "secure, confident, happy" factors.

Comparisons between work attitudes and school yield analogous results to those obtained with the personality factors. (See Table 2.19). The scores of the students at State University are again for the most part normally distributed for the six work attitude factors. Males and females alike score somewhat positive on the factor labeled "worried about job setting." Fletcher females, relatively conservative as a group, score very high on the "work ethnic" factor "success oriented through hard work." One might note that Fletcher has more Protestant females than any other school. They also respond positively to the factor "I like work - working will make me a better person." The males at this school do not fit into that particular mold nearly as well as their female counterparts, and are more like the Metro and State University males, who show very little deviation from the norm on any of the factors. At Latham, males and females score considerably more negatively on the "work ethic" and the "I like work..." factors than any other group, with the exception of the Metro females. The males at Latham are in general "worried about their job setting."

Table 2.18

School, Sex, and Personality Characteristics Factors

School	Practical Logical Cautious		Hostile Alienated Unhappy		Ambitious Aggressive A Leader		Analytical Insightful Intellectual		Secure Confident Happy	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
State U	2	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0
Fletcher	0	0	0	-2	1	1	0	0	0	0
Latham	-2	-1	1	0	0	-2	0	0	-2	-1
Metro	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Reeves	0	1	-1	0	2	1	0	0	1	2

	Easy-Going Fun-Loving Athletic		Moral Very Religious Honest		Beautiful Loving Thoughtful		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
State U	1	0	0	0	0	-1	(197)	(199)
Fletcher	0	1	0	1	0	0	(141)	(250)
Latham	1	0	0	-2	-1	-1	(279)	(158)
Metro	-1	0	0	0	0	0	(186)	(208)
Reeves	0	0	0	0	3	3	(58)	(106)
							(861)	(921)

However, only one out of five feel that "My career will be the most important thing in my life." Even fewer agree that "Work is nothing more than a way of making a living." Material gain as a primary goal in one's life is highly disdained. Our college seniors evidently feel that work is a very important dimension of life, offering an opportunity to contribute one's talents to others through activities which are meaningful and exciting to them. Nevertheless, it is not, in general, the most important dimension of their lives. Perhaps their priorities are such that private considerations would override the importance of work, as evidenced by the high positive response rate (over 80%) to the following statements: "My private life will not be sacrificed to make more money," "I would not work for an organization that carried out policies I think are wrong," and "The kind of work I do matters more than whether I do it for government, business, a university, or an independent organization "

Table 2.18 shows the scores of the five schools on the various personality factors. State University shows little variation from the mean on any of the factors, with the exception of the males for being "practical, logical, and cautious." At Fletcher, both sexes show a mild tendency to score positively on the "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" factor. The males are otherwise evenly distributed, but the females show several interesting variations. Their religiosity is apparent in the "moral, religious, honest" factor on which they score positively. They apparently feel they are well-adjusted and happy, as evidenced by their score of -2 on the "hostile, alienated, unhappy" factor Latham males, more than any other group, tend to report themselves as being unhappy and insecure. They also score considerably more negative on the "practical, logical, cautious" factor. Females at Latham are similar to the males in these respects, but less so. They are, in addition, the most negative scoring group for the "moral, religious, honest" and "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" factors. The former suggests that the Latham females are the least traditional of the five school groups with respect to religion. However, the latter indicates the opposite with regard to sex roles. Interestingly enough, although the Latham females tend to rate themselves as relatively conservative with respect to sex roles, they are actually somewhat liberal in their behavior. This is probably a function of this group's high SES. Metro shows very little variation among the eight personality factors, with the puzzling exception of the females, who on the "hostile, alienated, unhappy" factor score a positive two. Reeves students (both male and female) score extremely high on the "beautiful, loving, thoughtful" factor, and considerably high on the "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" and "secure, confident, happy" factors.

Comparisons between work attitudes and school yield analogous results to those obtained with the personality factors. (See Table 2.19). The scores of the students at State University are again for the most part normally distributed for the six work attitude factors. Males and females alike score somewhat positive on the factor labeled "worried about job setting." Fletcher females, relatively conservative as a group, score very high on the "work ethnic" factor "success oriented through hard work." One might note that Fletcher has more Protestant females than any other school. They also respond positively to the factor "I like work - working will make me a better person." The males at this school do not fit into that particular mold nearly as well as their female counterparts, and are more like the Metro and State University males, who show very little deviation from the norm on any of the factors. At Latham, males and females score considerably more negatively on the "work ethic" and the "I like work..." factors than any other group, with the exception of the Metro females. The males at Latham are in general "worried about their job setting."

Table 2.18

School, Sex, and Personality Characteristics Factors

School	Practical Logical Cautious		Hostile Alienated Unhappy		Ambitious Aggressive A Leader		Analytical Insightful Intellectual		Secure Confident Happy	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
State U	2	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0
Fletcher	0	0	0	-2	1	1	0	0	0	0
Latham	-2	-1	1	0	0	-2	0	0	-2	-1
Metro	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Reeves	0	1	-1	0	2	1	0	0	1	2

	Easy-Going Fun-Loving Athletic		Moral Very Religious Honest		Beautiful Loving Thoughtful		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
State U	1	0	0	0	0	-1	(197)	(199)
Fletcher	0	1	0	1	0	0	(141)	(250)
Latham	1	0	0	-2	-1	-1	(279)	(158)
Metro	-1	0	0	0	0	0	(186)	(208)
Reeves	0	0	0	0	3	3	(58)	(106)
							(861)	(921)

Table 2.19

School, Sex, and Work-Attitude Factors

School	Success oriented through hard work		Job is not way of life, just a way to earn money		Worried about job being boring; uncreative no useful guidance		Private life more important than a job; unmaterialistic, anti-business	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
State U	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fletcher	1	3	0	-1	0	-2	0	0
Latham	-2	-2	-1	0	0	0	0	1
Metro	1	-2	0	0	0	2	0	1
Reeves	0	0	0	0	-2	-2	0	-2

	Worried about job setting		I like work, working will make me a better person		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
State U	1	1	1	0	(197)	(199)
Fletcher	-1	0	0	2	(141)	(250)
Latham	2	0	-2	-2	(279)	(158)
Metro	0	0	0	-2	(186)	(208)
Reeves	-2	-2	0	0	(58)	(106)
					(861)	(921)

As mentioned above, females at Metro score negatively on the work ethic and "I like work" factors, in contrast to the males, who tend to be at least somewhat "success oriented through hard work." The females are also quite concerned about their jobs being boring and uncreative (factor three), and are somewhat unmaterialistic and private-life oriented (factor four). Both sexes at Reeves are relatively unconcerned about either their job settings or about their jobs being boring and uncreative. This is most probably a function of the field of study of this group, which is predominately Education. These people, for the most part, know where they are going and what their job is going to be like. Females at Reeves are the only group to score negatively on the "unmaterialistic" factor, which is reasonably attributed to the very low mean SES of this group.

One's SES is apparently related to one's personality; however, the relation may be a spurious one. (See Table 2.20). Also, the degree of relation in most of the comparisons is small. The low SES groups are more likely to be "practical, logical, cautious" than are their counterparts. This is presumably because of the decreasing number of degrees of freedom in one's alternative behaviors as a person's SES becomes lower. Those with a high SES rating are somewhat less likely to be "hostile, alienated, and unhappy" than those with a lower SES rating. The opposite is true for the factor labeled "secure, confident, happy." The explanation here is obvious. The very high SES groups score quite high on the factor "analytical, insightful, an intellectual." SES is more probably causally connected in this case than in some of the others. One's SES leads to very different settings as far as opportunities for educational and social sophistication are concerned. The low SES groups score relatively high on the "moral, religious, honest" factor; females of high SES groups score negatively. This relationship is also intuitively reasonable. Males are less likely to be differentiated by SES on this personality factor than are females. Females with higher SES ratings clearly see themselves as being less "moral, religious, and honest" than females of lower SES backgrounds. This evidence further substantiates the data presented in Tables 2-11 and 2-12, dealing with SES and the religious orientation of the respondents.

SES and work attitude comparisons show very little direct relationship. (See Table 2.21). The variation between groups is often little more than statistical, that is, it is difficult to generalize the results of the comparison to the four SES groups and come up with meaningful statements. The very high SES group is more likely to place less emphasis on the importance of money in a job, but they are apparently concerned about their job setting, perhaps due to some kind of relative deprivation effect. They need more from their jobs in the way of quality of job setting and the status of the work they do to maintain their high standing in the community.

This section considers one other critical variable as it relates to personality and work attitude characteristics, and that is the present religious preference of the respondent. Present religious preference is in many cases heavily related to personality and work attitude characteristics. (See Tables 2.22 and 2.23). Casual connections are difficult to determine; it is likely that this varies for different individuals. Some personalities or work attitude positions are such that some or all religions may not appeal to them. In other cases religion appears to have served the purpose of "molding one's character;" that is, changing one's personality or work attitude characteristics. Protestants are by far the least likely to be "hostile, alienated, and unhappy." They score positively for the factors "ambitious, aggressive, a leader," "secure,

Table 2.20

SES, Sex, and Personality Characteristics Factors

SES	Practical Logical Cautious		Hostile Alienated Unhappy		Ambitious Aggressive A Leader		Analytical Insightful An intellectual		Secure Confident Happy	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Very Low	1	0	1	0	0	0	-1	0	-1	-1
Mid Low	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0
Mid High	0	-1	0	-1	0	2	0	0	0	1
Very High	-1	-1	-2	0	0	0	2	2	1	0

	Easy-going Fun-loving Athletic		Moral Very Religious Honest		Beautiful Loving Thoughtful		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Very Low	0	0	1	1	0	0	(226)	(314)
Mid Low	0	0	0	1	0	0	(193)	(206)
Mid High	0	-1	0	-1	0	0	(171)	(158)
Very High	1	0	0	-1	0	0	(271)	(248)
							(861)	(921)

Table 2.21

SES, Sex, and Work-Attitude Factors

SES	Success oriented through hard work		Job is not way of life, just a way to earn money		Worried about job being boring; uncreative no useful guidance		Private life more important than a job; unmaterialistic anti-business		Worried about job setting		I like work, working will make me a better person		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Very Low	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	-2	0	0	2	(226)	(314)
Mid Low	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	(193)	(206)
Mid High	0	0	0	0	0	-2	0	0	0	0	0	-1	(171)	(158)
Very High	0	0	-1	-1	0	1	1	1	2	+1	-1	0	(271)	(243)
													(861)	(921)

Table 2.22

Present Religious Preference,
Sex, and Personality Characteristics Factors

Present Religious Preference	Practical Logical Cautious		Hostile Alienated Unhappy		Ambitious Aggressive A Leader		Analytical Insightful An Intellectual		Secure Confident Happy	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Protestent	0	0	-2	-2	2	1	-1	0	1	1
Roman Catholic	2	0	0	0	2	0	-2	-2	0	0
Jewish	0	-1	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
None	-2	0	2	2	-2	-1	2	2	-1	0

	Easy-Going Fun-Loving Athletic		Moral Religious Honest		Beautiful Loving Thoughtful		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Protestant	0	1	2	2	-2	0	(278)	(342)
Roman Catholic	0	0	2	3	0	0	(189)	(228)
Jewish	0	0	1	-1	0	0	(51)	(35)
Other	0	0	2	0	0	1	(58)	(77)
None	0	-1	-3	-3	2	0	(272)	(224)
							(848)	(906)

Table 2.23

Present Religious Preference, Sex, and Work Attitude Factors

Present Religious Preference	Success oriented through hard work		Job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money		Worried about job being boring, uncreative, no useful guidance		Private life more important than a job, unmaterialistic, anti-business	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Protestant	3	3	0	-1	-2	-2	0	-1
Roman Catholic	2	1	0	2	0	0	0	0
Jewish	-1	0	0	0	-2	0	0	0
Other	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
None	-3	-3	0	-1	3	2	0	0

	Worried about job setting		I like work, working will make me a better person		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
Protestant	0	-2	3	3	(278)	(342)
Roman Catholic	-2	0	1	2	(189)	(228)
Jewish	1	0	-2	0	(51)	(35)
Other	0	0	1	0	(58)	(77)
None	1	1	-3	-3	(272)	(224)
					(848)	(906)

confident, happy," and "moral, religious, honest." The males score themselves low on being "beautiful, loving, thoughtful." Roman Catholics are not too dissimilar, with only three significant variations. First, the males score quite high on the "practical, logical, cautious" factor. Second, the Catholics as a group see themselves as not being "analytical, insightful, an intellectual;" both sexes scoring highly negative. Finally, they are not nearly as likely as Protestants to describe themselves as being happy and secure. The Jewish respondents showed little variation among the eight personality factors, which in one instance is very surprising. The "moral, religious, honest" factor is one on which one would expect each of the religious groups to score high. Male Jews earn a score of positive one (compared to Protestants and Roman Catholics who each average positive two), but the female Jews scored negative one. Probably the most interesting group are those who claim no religious preference. They are by far the most likely to be "hostile, alienated, unhappy" and "analytical, insightful, an intellectual." Both sexes also score highly negative on the "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" and "moral, religious, honest" factors. The males show significant variation on two other factors, scoring positively on the "beautiful, loving, thoughtful, factor and negative for being "practical, logical, cautious."

Religious preference is also very strongly related to one's work attitude. The two factors labeled "success oriented through hard work" and "I like work ..." are very positively related to being Protestant, somewhat positively related to being Roman Catholic, somewhat negatively related to being a male of the Jewish faith, and highly negatively related to having no religious preference. Apparently, Protestants are still the most likely to hold the work ethic, with Roman Catholics not too far behind. Those with no religious preference, besides being not nearly as work-oriented as the other groups, are by far the most likely to exhibit concerns over whether their job will be boring and uncreative, and are evidently worried about their job settings. There are several other interesting variations in work attitudes among some of the religious groups. Roman Catholic males and Protestant females each have a score of negative two on the factor labeled "worried about job setting." The latter is probably best explained by the relatively high number of Fletcher Education majors in this religion. An explanation for the former variation is somewhat more of a puzzlement. Roman Catholic females are the only group to score positively on the factor labeled "job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money."

In later chapters many other variable relationships will be explored utilizing the two indices introduced in this section; particularly with items dealing with the world of work.

CHAPTER 3

THE RESPONDENTS: WHAT THEY BELIEVE

In this chapter we seek to provide the reader with a different type of student profile than that which is presented in Chapter 2. In this portion of our report we describe our population in terms of their attitudes, values, and perceptions with regard to a variety of issues. More specifically, we attempt to provide answers to the following questions:

1) How do our respondents feel about work?

2) What do they see as the most and the least desirable characteristics of work?

3) What do they see as the differences and similarities in their work-related attitudes when compared with those of their parents?

4) What are their current religious and political attitudes? In what ways are these political attitudes perceived to be different from those of their parents?

5) How do our respondents feel about male and female roles?

6) How do our respondents assess the commitment of today's students to social change?

7) What do our respondents see as the potential barriers which might prohibit their attainment of their life goals?

As noted in Chapter 2 and as will be described in other chapters, the sex and socioeconomic status of the respondent are significantly related to a variety of factors which influence career choice and career orientation. How these two variables are related to actual career plans and work orientations will be described in greater detail in Chapter 5 ("The Respondents: The World of Work and Careers"). Here in Chapter 3 the focus is upon the relationships between sex, SES, and the questions we seek to answer.

Keeping in mind that the term "work" will have different meanings to different people, we find that most of our respondents agree (if not strongly) that they like to work. At the same time responses to the statement, "I like to work" suggest that "work" is not necessarily viewed with overwhelming enthusiasm. Rather, the responses are what might have been expected. Most people view work as a natural next step following the completion of one's formal education. Like it or not, work of some type is the expected norm for an adult in our society. This expectation is particularly true for those who have attended and completed college. Obviously the message has come through to our respondents. Many give as their primary reason for attending college, a desire to acquire career and work related skills (See Chapter 6). Nevertheless, although they expect to work and have enrolled in college to enhance their work careers, most students do not "strongly agree" with the statement "I like to work." Table 3.1 shows the distribution of sex and SES to the statement: "I like to work."

Table 3.1

Sex, SES and Feelings About Work

("I like to work" percentages)

	Strongly Agree		Mildly Agree		Mildly Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Irrelevant To Me		N	N
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Very-High	34	43	50	44	11	10	3	3	2	2	(285)	(248)
Mid-High	35	56	51	46	11	7	3	1	-	-	(174)	(165)
Mid-Low	32	47	54	44	10	7	2	2	2	-	(203)	(212)
Very-Low	38	41	44	47	12	9	5	3	1	-	(237)	(320)
Total	35	44	49	45	11	8	4	3	1	-	(904)	(945)

Table 3.1 indicates that to some degree most students agree that they do like to work. The table also shows that there is little variation among students of different SES backgrounds. Sex comparisons indicate that women are somewhat more likely than males to strongly agree with the "I like to work" statement.

While we have no comparative data which would allow for a match between our respondents and earlier generations of college seniors, we do have data on how our respondents believe most people feel about work. Specifically, our respondents were asked their opinion about the statement "Most people like to work." Analysis of responses to this statement show the following:

A) Significantly larger numbers of both males and females either mildly disagree or strongly disagree with this statement than was the case in the making of assessments of one's own personal feelings about work. Forty-two percent (42%) of the males and forty-six percent (46%) of the females express some degree of disagreement with the statement: "Most people like to work."

B) The difference between male and female assessment of this statement is not as great as was found when personal assessments about work were made.

C) While for males the levels of agreement with this statement do vary somewhat by SES, such is not the case with females. A slight consistent pattern for males emerges, such that the higher the SES of the respondent, the greater the proportion agreeing with the statement.

These findings suggest that many students have encountered people who did not exhibit enthusiasm about their work status. Who these people were we cannot say, nor can we say anything about the criteria utilized by our respondents in making their judgments or about the validity of these judgments. What we can say is that in comparison with their perceptions of others, this sample of college seniors holds a more positive personal view toward work. What their attitudes will be once they have entered and participated in the world of work may, of course, be another matter.

Other statements and questions included in the questionnaire provide data as to the relationship that graduating seniors see between work and other aspects of their lives. A careful analysis of these data make clear that while most respondents are eager to begin and become involved in their careers, they do not place their careers above their desire to achieve and maintain strong family relationships. Work and careers are seen as more than a means to an end. What one does in his work, the policies of the organization for which one works, the direct consequences of one's work, and the impact of one's work upon one's private life are all critical issues for these young people. Work for the most part, and for most graduating seniors, is seen as an integral part of one's life, but not the most salient factor in one's life. For example, only a fourth of the males and less than a fifth of the females would agree (combining strong agreement with mild agreement) with the statement "My career will be the most important thing in my life." SES comparisons show no differences among males, but differences do occur among females of different SES backgrounds. The greatest variation is found between women in the very highest SES group and those from mid-low SES families. Fourteen percent (14%) of the highest SES women compared with twenty percent (20%) of the mid-low SES women agree with the statement:

"My career will be the most important thing in my life."

Similarly, the great majority of male and female respondents from all SES backgrounds reject the idea of sacrificing their private lives in order to make more money. These observations are not meant to imply that income and job security are not important to our respondents. As will be pointed out in other sections of this report, dollars and job security are of importance - particularly to those respondents who have grown up in less-than-affluent families. The importance of material possessions for some students will also be noted in our discussion of differences and similarities in how students perceive themselves and their parents. Our central point here is that while variations are found, the majority of respondents do for the most part present a similar outlook toward the place of careers within the framework of their overall life styles.

As would be anticipated, males place a greater importance on the centrality and saliency of work. The differences, however, are not as great as we would expect given the continuous cultural and societal emphasis upon the male as breadwinner and provider. Differences between males and females are found to be minimal when we examine responses to the statement: "My private life will not be sacrificed to make more money." Eighty-nine percent (89%) of the women and eighty-two percent (82%) of the males agree with this statement. While SES differences are not substantial, both men and women of the higher SES backgrounds show greater proportions of agreement with this statement.

Responses to several other career saliency items provide additional insight. Table 3.2 presents student responses to the statement, "To me work is nothing more than a way of making a living." Females show more agreement among one another than do males. In addition, we find that while the variation is not great, the SES pattern noted in earlier discussions is maintained; that is, students of lower SES backgrounds are more likely to perceive work as nothing more than a means to an end, minimizing the possible intrinsic values of creativity, social relevance, etc. Both male and female students of lower SES background are more inclined to agree with the statement "To me work is nothing more than a way of making a living." It would appear that those of the lower SES backgrounds (particularly mid-low males) place a greater emphasis on work as solely a means of making a living than do those students of more affluent background.

Sex and SES patterns emerge in how college seniors react to the following statement: "A job is a way of making a living, not a way of life." Males by a difference of eight percent (8%) show greater endorsement of the statement (38% of the males and 30% of the females). For both males and females, SES is associated with variations in levels of agreement. For the females, agreement is highest for those of the very-low SES background with agreement being lowest for those of the very-high SES background. Once again the males of the mid-low SES background stand out. Forty-four percent (44%) of the mid-low males express agreement with the preceding statement ("A job is a way of making a living, not a way of life") compared with thirty-seven percent (37%) of the very-low males; thirty-five percent (35%) of the mid-high; and thirty-four percent (34%) of the very-high in agreement.

As our discussion in this chapter and the analysis in other chapters unfolds, it will become apparent that in a number of instances males from mid-low SES backgrounds hold a view of work different from that of males of other

Table 3.2

SES, Sex, and Feelings About Work

("To me work is nothing more than a way of making a living")

SES	%* M	%* F
Very-High	17	10
Mid-High	16	11
Mid-Low	28	17
Very-low	21	17
Total %	21 (based on 896 cases)	14 (based on 935 cases)

* Percentages include both the "strongly agree" and "mildly agree" categories.

SES backgrounds. It will also be shown that females of very-low SES families differ in some important ways from other females. There are several factors which we believe will help explain these observed differences. These factors will become more apparent when we deal in greater length with both the race and ethnic backgrounds of the respondents. Prior to this more detailed analysis it would be helpful for the reader to keep in mind that a significant proportion of the very-low SES females are Black; and a significant proportion of the mid-low males are not only first-generation college goers, but also young people who have been reared in predominately working class families.

Table 3.3 illustrates the distribution of responses to yet another statement dealing with work attitudes. Males place the greater emphasis upon the importance of money. Among the males, those of the mid-low SES background are most likely to agree with the statement, "The most important part of work to me is earning enough money to do what I want." It should also be noted that overall agreement with this statement is significantly greater than was the case with the preceding statement, "To me work is nothing more than a way of making a living." It is apparent that the majority of respondents see the essential purpose of work as something other than the earning of money solely for the purpose of achieving status or success; many see work as primarily a means to an end. The end in this case is the attainment of the financial means needed to pursue and achieve one's desired life style. At the same time these college seniors do not see the pursuit and accumulation of money as a guarantor of success in one's life. Rather, as was indicated earlier, for many of our respondents, work represents an obvious and anticipated means for the attainment of goals.

Only nineteen percent (19%) of the males and fourteen percent (14%) of the females indicated agreement with the statement: "To be really successful in life, you must care about money." Females again show the least agreement with minimal SES variation. The two lowest SES groups among males are most in agreement, with males of the mid-low group being highest (26%) in agreement.

Table 3.3

SES, Sex, and Feelings About Work

("The most important part of work to me is earning enough money to do what I want")

SES	%* M	%* F
Very-High	40	26
Mid-High	40	28
Mid-Low	50	30
Very-Low	38	30
Total %	41 (based on 900 cases)	27 (based on 941 cases)

* Percentages include both the "strongly agree" and mildly agree" categories.

Three statements in the questionnaire dealt specifically with what it takes to be successful in one's career. The three statements were:

1) "Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of hard work."

2) "Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of how much you know."

3) "Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of personal effort."

The distribution of responses to these statements shows that only about a third of the seniors (35% of the males and the 31% of the females) agree that success in an occupation is mainly a matter of how much you know. It is apparent from this finding that knowledge and skills alone are not viewed as being the most critical elements in occupational success.

"Hard work" as the instrument of career success fares somewhat better. In this case there is consensus among sixty percent (60%) of the males and fifty-nine percent (59%) of the females. More important than what you know and how hard you work, according to our respondents, is "personal effort." Here agreement comes from seventy-eight percent (78%) of the men and eighty percent (80%) of the women. SES for both males and females shows little variation with regard to the importance of how much you know. Similarily the differences among the four SES groups are slight in the perception of the relationship between hard work and success. The perceived impact of personal effort on occupational success does however tend to vary with SES for males. The distribution of agreement by SES for male respondents is as follows:

Table 3.4

SES, Male Sex, and Feelings About Work

("Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of personal effort.")

Male SES (N=898)	%*
Very-High	83
Mid-High	78
Mid-Low	79
Very-Low	72

* Percentages include both the "strongly agree" and "mildly agree" categories.

Based upon other data in the questionnaire and from personal interviews with students, it becomes clear that many of the seniors are uncertain as to what occupational success does mean. Clearly, monetary rewards alone or the social prestige associated with a particular occupational role are not primary success criteria. As will be pointed out in other sections of this report, a successful occupation tends to be seen as one in which the individual is able to fulfill a variety of personal needs while at the same time contributing something of value to society. It is also apparent that many seniors are somewhat cynical about what it really takes to achieve career success. One's ability, knowledge, and educational credentials are not considered to be the major attributes. Here work is considered important. But perhaps even more important is the feeling that one's personal style, one's contacts, one's ability to manipulate, and one's "personal efforts" beyond skill, ability, and hard work are the most important. The group of students least likely to endorse any of the three statements related to success in work are those from the very-low SES backgrounds. While the differences by SES are not always statistically significant, a distinct trend emerges in which these students tend to be most doubtful about the potential value of certain achievement-oriented behaviors. That this group would be most cynical or doubtful should not be surprising when we recall that Black students represent a majority of those who are of very-low SES backgrounds. Black students specifically perceive barriers to occupational success that are not lightly overcome no matter what may be the personal qualities and abilities of the individual.

Responses to the statement, "I assume I will have a good income. I'm more concerned with finding a job where I will do relevant things," reflect both the economic optimism of students and the importance of doing something relevant within the work setting. Ninety-one percent (91%) of the females and eighty-three percent (83%) of the males agree with the statement. The greater endorsement of this statement by females may be explained by several factors: 1) female salary expectations are generally lower than that of males; 2) males place a greater importance on money, probably because they are more likely to see themselves as the primary family source for earnings; and 3) females hold more altruistic help-oriented values than do males. Regardless of the sex differences, the vast majority of these college seniors seek careers which will enable them to do relevant things. In the case of both males and females, SES differences are slight.

An anticipated concern of our respondents is that their jobs might be boring and monotonous. Almost half of the males (44%) and a third (35%) of the females foresee such a possibility. Variation by SES for the males is quite small. For females some differences emerge when we compare the very-low SES group with the very-high SES group. Thirty-one percent (31%) of the very-low and thirty-eighty percent (38%) of the very-high express concern that their work might be boring and monotonous.

About half of the respondents (51% of the males and 48% of the females) also agree with the statement, "Few jobs let a person be creative." Little variation is found in how students of different SES backgrounds respond to this statement.

Both sex and SES account for some interesting patterns in responses to the statement: "In our society, anyone who is physically able and wants to find a job can find a job." Males are more likely than females (47% to 38%) to agree with the statement. SES variation for females is almost nonexistent. For males those of mid-low and mid-high are most in agreement (52%) while those at at the extremes -- very-low and very-high are least in agreement (43%) with the statement. The observed differences in SES among males can be explained in part by the fact that Black males make up a disproportionate number of males in the very-low SES group. As we have already noted, Blacks tend to see greater barriers to employment than do whites. The very-high SES group includes those who hold more liberal political views; they also believe that employment opportunities are not equally distributed among all segments of the adult population.

Males in the mid-low SES group tend to hold more traditional attitudes toward work, and are most firmly committed to the philosophy that hard work builds good character and that work makes you a better person. As we shall also point out in the discussion which follows, both the mid-low and mid-high males have in common a similar political orientation. Generally then, this combination of the holding of traditional work values and a more conservative political ideology contributes to differences in perceptions of occupational opportunities.

Respondents also make it quite clear that they would not work for an organization which carried out policies with which the student did not agree Although most respondents agree that "work is a good builder of character" (70% of the males and 75% of the females), they are far less convinced that "hard work makes you a better person" (45% of the males and 39% of the females). Among males, those of the mid-low SES group indicate the highest level of agreement with both statements. Males least likely to concur are those of the very-high SES group followed by those of very-low SES. Interestingly enough the statement, "Hard work builds good character," is one of the few work-related items which receives greater support from females than males. The women most likely to concur with the statement are those of mid-low SES while those most likely to disagree are of very-high SES families. Women in general, perhaps because many do see themselves as eventually being dependent upon the earnings of a male, see hard work as one piece of evidence confirming the good character of men. The mid-low SES women in particular, and males of similar SES backgrounds, are most firmly committed to such a belief. For all SES groups and both sexes, however, good character is one thing and being a better person is yet another. Good character reflects a willingness to assume responsibilities and obligations. Being a better person goes beyond work and family obligations. Being a better person encompasses a wider range of ideas, attitudes, values, and behavior. Something other than or in addition to hard work contributes to the making of a better person.

Our next concern in this chapter is to review what respondents see as the least and most desirable characteristics of work. Again, the focus is upon the sex and SES of the respondents. Each respondent was provided with a number of characteristics associated with work and work settings. Each respondent was asked to select the three characteristics they felt were most important to them and the three characteristics they felt were least important. In Table 3.5 the percentage distributions for the most and least important work characteristics are shown for both men and women. Comparisons of men and women respondents on rankings of most important characteristics of a job show similar patterns in ordering of characteristics, but show some important differences in emphasis. For example, both sex groups rank "opportunities to be helpful to others/useful to society" and "chance to use my special abilities" highest. Neither sex group stresses the importance of being in a position to control important decision making, being part of a team, or holding a job of high prestige and social status. The major differences are found in the degree of emphasis. Women by a margin of two to one, endorse the importance of altruistic opportunities to be helpful to others and useful to society. Women are also somewhat more likely to select "Chance to use my special skills." Men are somewhat higher on opportunity for advancement; stable, secure future; and chance to make a contribution to important decisions. The sex differences though, with the exception of the "people-society" item, are minimal. For both men and women there is a general tendency to place less emphasis on the importance of money, social status, team work, and opportunities to exercise leadership. The need for freedom from supervision in one's work is not stressed. The ideal work and work-setting situation consists of being able to engage in helpful and socially relevant activities while at the same time utilizing special skills and abilities. Although money is not stressed, there is a relatively strong desire for career security and stability. Finally, respondents say they would also be concerned with finding work which would offer opportunities for advancement and opportunities to learn.

A similar sex consensus pattern is observed when we examine the work characteristics which generate the least concern for graduating seniors. In this case the greatest discrepancy between men and women is five percent (5%). Women are less concerned (18% to 13%) then men about making a lot of money and as will be noted later expect lower earnings than males. Concern over the prestige and status attributed to a career is of least importance for the entire sample. Men also place less importance upon avoiding high pressure jobs and working as part of a team. Altruism among males tends to be highest for those of the very-lowest and very-highest SES groups. Opportunities for advancement is stressed primarily by mid-low SES males. Mid-low males are also highest in concerns over job security while placing less emphasis upon being in a position which allows for the use of special abilities. In the case of women respondents the major differences are found when comparisons are made between women of very-low SES and the other three SES groups. Briefly, women of the very-low SES backgrounds differ from the others in the following ways:

Table 3.5

Sex and Most/Least Important Work Characteristic

	Most Important			Least Important		
Work Characteristics	Male	Female	(M-F)	Male	Female	(M-F)
Opportunities to be helpful to others/useful to society	17	33	-16	3	1	+2
Chance to use my special abilities	17	21	-4	1	-	+1
Stable/secure future	14	11	+3	2	2	ND
Chance to learn new things	12	13	-1	1	1	ND
Opportunity for advancement	8	3	+5	1	2	-1
Variety in work assignments	6	6	ND	1	-	+1
Avoiding a high pressure job which takes too much out of you	5	4	+1	12	8	+4
Freedom from supervision in my work	4	2	+2	7	5	+2
Friendly and congenial associates	3	3	ND	-	1	-1
Making a lot of money	3	1	+2	13	18	-5
Chance to exercise leadership	3	1	+2	5	8	-3
Chance to engage in satisfying leisure activities	3	2	+1	2	3	-1
Chance to make a contribution to important decisions	3	-	+3	2	4	-2
Working as part of team	1	-	+1	10	6	+4
High prestige and social status	1	-	+1	40	42	-2
Total %	100 (901)	100 (935)		100 (883)	100 (925)	

1) They place less emphasis on the importance of opportunities for advancement.

2) They place less emphasis on the importance of career advancement.

3) They place less emphasis upon variety in their work.

4) They place more emphasis upon a stable and secure future.

Again, it is important to point out that the very-low SES female group contains a very high proportion of the total Black female sample involved in this research. As has been pointed out in our discussion up to this point and as will be noted throughout this report, Black female respondents, for a variety of reasons, do differ significantly from other female respondents in a number of important ways. It would appear that in many ways they are the most traditional in their attitudes toward and expectations for the types of work and life styles they will be pursuing.

A second series of items dealing with the most important aspects of a job provides additional information about our respondents and also data about how they perceive certain aspects of their fathers' work. In this question respondents were provided with a list of job characteristics and asked to select those items which they felt were most important to them and those which they felt were most important to their fathers.

Table 3.6 portrays the distribution of self responses for both men and women, perception of father attitudes, and percentage differences between self and father ratings.

We begin with the self ratings of male respondents. Two job characteristics account for more than half (57%) of the most important work aspects selected by our respondents. For the males forty-two percent (42%) report their first choices to be "personal interest in work." Fifteen percent (15%) select "security." The next three items most frequently selected account for an additional twenty-three percent (23%) of all first choices. These are in order of importance: "opportunity to be individualistic" (9%); "opportunity to be original and creative" (8%); and "opportunity to help other people" (6%). The two items which show the greatest contrast between sons and fathers are "security" and "personal interest in work." Sons see themselves as far less concerned about job security and much more concerned about personal interest in work. Other differences can also be noted. They indicate that sons see themselves as more inclined to be original and creative (a difference of 7%); more inclined toward individualism (6% difference); and less concerned about high salaries (a difference of 6%).

Females present a job characteristic profile similar to that of the males The main difference for females is that they are more likely than males to see their fathers as placing more emphasis upon "job stability" and a little less emphasis upon "security." This difference might be explained by the fact that women respondents are more likely than males respondents to come from lower SES families. The greater emphasis upon job stability no doubt reflects experiences in which they have seen fathers out of work because of employment fluctuations.

Table 3.6

Sex, Father/Self Comparisons, and Most Important Job Characteristics

	Males			Females		
Job Characteristic	Father	Self	(F-S)	Father	Self	(F-S)
Security	36	15	+32	41	12	+29
Potential for rapid advancement	1	5	-4	1	2	-1
High Salary	11	5	+6	9	3	+6
Opportunity to be individualistic	3	9	-6	3	8	-5
Relevance to society	-	2	-2	-	3	-3
Freedom to work at own pace	4	3	+1	4	3	+1
Opportunity to work with hands	2	-	+2	2	-	+2
Friendly co-workers	2	2	ND	1	2	-1
Personal interest in work	18	42	-24	21	45	-24
Opportunity to help other people	2	6	-4	3	14	-11
Opportunity to be original and creative	1	8	-7	1	7	-6
Solid physical labor	-	-	ND	-	-	ND
Opportunity to work outdoors	2	1	+1	1	-	+1
Stability of job	6	2	+4	12	1	+11
Social status	1	-	+1	1	-	+1
Total %	100 (873)	100 (884)		100 (910)	100 (915)	

Differences between males and females in self-selected job characteristics remain minimal. The one exception is the "opportunity to help others" item. Again the women express a more altruistic orientation. SES significantly influenced how this sample of college seniors responded to one part of this job characteristic question. The socioeconomic background of the student affected his response in the perceptions of his father's attitudes toward work. For males:

A) The importance of "security" as a critical job factor declines with upward SES mobility. Fifty-seven percent (57%) of the very-low SES males select "security" as compared with thirty-four percent (34%) of the very-high SES males.

B) "Interest in work" increases in importance as a primary factor with upward SES movement. Ten percent (10%) of the very-low and thirty-two percent (32%) of the very-high select this factor.

For females these same items reflect SES variations although the differences are not as great as these found among males. For example, the differences between the very-low SES females and the very-high is ten percent (10%) on the issue of "security." For males the difference between these two groups was twenty-three percent (23%). Similarily, "interest in work" shows a fourteen percent (14%) difference for females and a twenty-two percent (22%) difference for males when we contrast the very-low and very-high SES groups.

Sex and SES comparisons make two factors apparent. First, males are more likely to stress the importance of job security and salary when talking about either their fathers' primary concern or their own concerns. Secondly, both males and females of lower socioeconomic status place a heavier emphasis upon job security and salary. While the variables of SES and sex upon the respondent's evaluation of the job characteristics important to him are not substantially impactive, tendencies and consistent patterns do emerge. The significant differences occur in perceptions of job characteristics believed to be important to fathers. The pattern, as noted above, is for males more so than females to see fathers as concerned with job security and salary. Respondents of lower SES status backgrounds view job security and salary as being of greater importance to fathers. The explanation for this difference in perceptions is probably not complex. We would expect that male children would have the greater exposure to information about the dynamics of their fathers' work role. Despite changes in the occupational roles and status of women in our society, men are still considered to hold the primary responsibility for the financial support of the nuclear family. Hence we would expect male respondents to be more inclined to stress the security and financial aspects of both their own and their fathers' occupational roles.

The greater emphasis upon job security and salary expressed by respondents of lower SES backgrounds is also understandable. Clearly, the occupations of lower income fathers are not as challenging, interesting, or intellectually stimulating as are the occupations of fathers of the higher SES groups. Respondents of lower SES backgrounds are more inclined to see their fathers' work as being routine, monotonous and offering little opportunity for creativity or a personal interest in one's work. These students are less likely to select those variables (creativity, challenge, stimulation, etc.) to which they have not been exposed through the experiences of their fathers.

From other data collected it is clear that the SES of the respondent is associated with differences in perceptions of the father's overall satisfaction with his work role. About two-thirds of both the males and females believe that their fathers were either "always happy" or "mostly happy" about their work. SES comparisons for both sex groups show that the higher the SES of the respondent the greater the likelihood of evaluating the father as being happy with his work role. Fifty-four percent (54%) of the very-low SES males compared with eighty percent (80%) of the very-high SES males see their fathers as being happy with their work. Similarly, females of the very-low SES see their fathers as less happy with their occupational role than do females of the very-high SES group (52% for the very-low SES and 74% for the very-high SES females). Interestingly enough, the vast majority of male and female college seniors (87% of females and 90% of males) see their mothers as being mostly or often happy in their roles. Differences by SES are inconsequential. What is more important, we believe, is not that significant differences are found in perceptions of the father's occupational posture, but rather in the lack of significance in the differences observed among college seniors of varying SES backgrounds when they describe their own occupational needs and desires.

Again it is important to point out that SES and sex are not unimportant or uninfluential variables. As we noted earlier and as will be shown in other sections, both SES and sex are of great importance in predicting field of study and career choice outcomes. What we are saying is that SES and sex to a certain degree tend to lose their direct influence as the student becomes more and more a product of the college socializing process. Particularly important in terms of accounting for variations in career attitudes, values, expectations, aspirations, and career status is the student's field of study. The impact of field of study will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5 (The Respondents: The World of Work and Careers) of this report.

We are not suggesting that certain background factors such as SES, sex, ethnicity, and religion do not continue to play significant roles in some attitudinal and value areas. These variables, in combination with one another, are of importance in explaining certain student differences and will be dealt with throughout this report. The central point we seek to make at this time is that in terms of the respondents' own attitudes and expectations, there are more similarities than differences when we control for SES and sex.

We turn now to an analysis of the political attitudes of our respondents. Table 3.7 portrays the political orientation of the sample of college seniors by sex and SES. Omitted from the table are the small number of respondents who stated that either they had no political attitudes (5%) or that they did not know what their attitudes were (3%). We find first that differences by SES are slight and not statistically significant. Second, differences between males and females are minimal. The only variation is that most females are a bit higher on holding no firm political attitude (a difference of 3%); a bit lower on being liberal (a difference of 3%) and somewhat more conservative-moderate (a difference of 2%). The largest single group of respondents identify themselves as "liberals" (38% for the males and 35% for females). Relatively few students select the "radical left" orientation and hardly any see themselves as being affiliated with the "radical right." Table 3.7 suggests that there is a tendency for those of the higher SES groups to express a greater "liberal" political posture. Again the largest difference for males is found between mid-low SES males (32%) and very-high SES males (43%). For females a similar tendency is found, but here the largest discrepancy is found between females

Table 3.7

Sex, SES and Political Attitudes

SES	Conservative		Moderate		No Firm Attitude		Liberal		Radical Left		Radical Right		Total	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M N	F N
Very-Low	8	10	27	29	22	22	37	36	6	3	-	-	(218)	(273)
Mid-Low	[illegible]	8	29	33	21	22	32	35	6	2	-	-	(188)	(196)
Mid-High	8	8	33	34	19	23	35	30	5	5	-	-	(164)	(154)
Very-High	7	9	27	26	17	20	43	40	8	4	-	-	(272)	(226)
Total %	9	9	28	29	19	21	38	36	6	5	-	-	(842)	(849)

of the mid-high and very-high SES groups. Thirty percent (30%) of the mid-high SES females and forty percent (40%) of the very-high SES females select the "liberal" view.

It is of course difficult to know exactly what respondents have in mind when they select one of the political attitude orientations. No doubt terms such as "liberal," "conservative," "moderate," "radical left" or "radical right" have different meanings for different people. We do, however, have some comparative data which allows for the making of comparisons between our sample and two other groups. The first group is the fathers of our respondents. In this case respondents were asked to cite their own political preference and then to identify the political preferences of their fathers (See Table 3.8). In contrast to themselves, the respondents perceive their fathers as far more conservative (42% for fathers and 9% for college seniors); similar in the proportion of moderates; far less liberal (19% of the fathers and 36% of the seniors); and less politically independent (10% of the fathers and 21% of the respondents).

Differences in perceptions of fathers' political attitudes do not vary much when comparisons are made between males and females. However, SES differences are apparent, and in the case of males they are statistically significant. Males of the higher SES background tend to report their fathers as holding a firm political attitude of either moderate or liberal. Both males and females of lower SES backgrounds are more likely to report not knowing the political attitude of their fathers than are students of higher socioeconomic backgrounds. Females show a similar SES pattern as males, but the variation is not as great. Analysis of the variation between the political views of the students and those of fathers indicates that for both sexes and each SES group there is a difference in at least seventy-five percent (75%) of the cases. In other words, a minimum of three-fourths of all students see themselves as holding political views different from those of their fathers. The smallest variation (respondent versus father) is found among males of the mid-low SES group (76%) and the greatest among females of the mid-low SES group (92%). In each SES group with the exception of the very-low females, females exhibit the strongest shift away from fathers' political posture.

An examination of perceptions of the mothers' political positions shows little difference from the political views reported for fathers. We also find that SES seems to have less of an influence upon the political attitudes attributed to mothers.

A second basis for comparison between our sample of college seniors and another population is available through data obtained in the 1961 National Opinion Research Center Study of graduating seniors. A table included in the N.O.R.C. Report shows the following political orientation for 1961 graduating seniors:

Table 3.8

Sex, SES, and Fathers' Political Attitudes

SES	Conservative M %	Conservative F %	Moderate M %	Moderate F %	No Firm Attitude M %	No Firm Attitude F %	Liberal M %	Liberal F %	Radical Left M %	Radical Left F %
Very-Low	39	40	24	22	15	13	6	8	-	-
Mid-Low	43	47	26	28	14	8	7	5	-	-
Mid-High	46	49	35	26	7	8	7	8	-	1
Very-High	34	40	37	36	6	8	20	11	-	-
Total	40	44	31	28	10	9	11	8	-	-

SES	Radical Right M %	Radical Right F %	No Attitude M %	No Attitude F %	Don't Know M %	Don't Know F %	Other M %	Other F %	N M	N F
Very-Low	-	1	4	1	10	13	2	2	(231)	(305)
Mid-Low	1	1	2	1	7	8	-	2	(199)	(209)
Mid-High	1	2	2	1	2	5	-	-	(175)	(165)
Very-High	-	1	1	-	1	4	-	-	(285)	(248)
Total	1	1	2	1	5	8	-	1	(890)	(927)

Table 3.9

1961 Graduating Seniors and Political Orientations*

Political Orientation	%
Very Liberal	11
Fairly Liberal	37
Neither	18
Fairly Conservative	28
Very Conservative	6

* Taken from the N.O.R.C. Study of Graduating Seniors, 1961.

Although similar political attitude alternatives were not provided to both samples, we may, with a bit of stretching and assumption flexibility, make some comparisons. If we combine our liberal and radical left groups we obtain a percentage of forty-one (41%). This combined percentage can be compared to the "very" and "fairly" liberal group reported in the N.O.R.C. Study (48%). Equating our "no firm attitude" group with the N.O.R.C. "neither" group, we find a difference of three percent (3%). Eighteen percent (18%) of the N.O.R.C. sample selected this view while twenty-one percent (21%) of our sample selected a similar posture. Equating the current sample of "moderates" with the N.O.R.C. category of "fairly conservative" we find a difference of one percent (1%). Twenty-nine percent (29%) of our sample view themselves as "moderate" while twenty-eight percent (28%) of the N.O.R.C. sample see themselves as "fairly conservative." Finally, a comparison of our "conservative" with the N.O.R.C. "very conservative" shows a difference of three percent (3%). Nine percent (9%) of the 1972 seniors are "conservative" and six percent (6%) of the 1961 seniors were "very conservative."

Despite the admitted methodological shortcomings of such a comparison we would conclude that the differences between the two samples are not significant. Certainly there is little evidence to support the sometimes popular view that today's college students are more radical or politicalized than was the case a decade ago. What we can conclude is that the more dramatic and significant differences, at least in the area of political attitudes, occur not when we contrast current college seniors with college seniors of the early sixties, but when we compare the political views of students with the political views they attribute to their parents.

An attitudinal and ideological area where we do find significant differences between the current senior sample and the N.O.R.C. sample of 1961 is in the areas of religion and religiosity.

Table 3.10 shows that both SES and sex (to a lesser degree) are generally associated with variations in current religious preferences. Catholics are more heavily located in the lower SES groups, Jews are more likely to be found in the higher SES groups, and Protestants are more evenly distributed throughout the four SES groups. The larger proportion of "Others" in the very-low female

Table 3.10

Sex, SES and Current Religious Preference

Percent Preference

	Protestant		Catholic		Jewish		Other		None		Total	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M N	F N
Very-Low	29	34	30	29	3	3	8	12	30	22	(236)	(309)
Mid-Low	34	42	25	30	4	2	7	8	30	18	(198)	(212)
Mid-High	39	42	18	21	7	5	4	5	32	27	(179)	(165)
Very-High	31	35	15	19	10	7	8	8	36	31	(280)	(248)
Total %	33	38	22	25	6	4	7	9	32	24	(893)	(934)

SES groups is partially explained by the large number of Blacks (who frequently indicate Fundamentalist religions) in this SES group. The "Others" in both very-low and mid-low SES groups is made up largely of those identifying themselves as Protestant Fundamentalists, Orthodox Catholicism, and some Mormons. In the mid-high and especially very-high SES groups, the "Others" are much more likely to cite as their current religious preference some variants of Eastern religious philosophies (Transcendental Meditation, Hari Krishna, Hinduism, etc.). Included in the "Other" responses of the more affluent group were such comments as: "I am my own God," "My religion is the religion of man," and "My religion is my personal strength and beauty." Table 3.10 also indicates that almost a third (29%) of all respondents classify themselves as having no religious preference. The "nones" are more likely to be males and they are most likely to be found among respondents of the higher SES backgrounds.

In comparing the current religious preferences of this sample with those of the 1961 N.O.R.C. respondents, we find one striking difference. The N.O.R.C. report states "Even though there were some shifts -- mainly a nine percent (9%) increase in the "nones" from original religion to present religion, eighty-five percent (85%) of the seniors were in the same religion at graduation as that in which they were raised," (Great Aspirations, 1961). Data for the 1972 seniors show much more in the way of religious mobility. A total of thirty-two percent (32%) of those respondents who were reared as Protestants, Catholics, or Jews report a shift away from the religion in which they were reared. The losses for each of the three religions are as follows:

Protestants - 33%
Catholics - 31%
Jews - 20%

Increases from reared religious status to current religious status occurred in two categories: "other" and "none." "Other" shows an increase of twenty-eight percent (28%) from 112 to 143 respondents. "None" shows an increase of over twenty times that of the original number of 23 to 513 respondents. Similar to the N.O.R.C. Study, inter-religious shifts are rare. The majority of those who do report a change have come from one of the three major American religious groups but presently report "none" preference. Subtracting the original "none" (1%) from the current "none" (28%) leaves a gain of twenty-seven percent (27%). A total of the current "none" in our sample is three times greater than that reported in the N.O.R.C. Study. Additional discussion of the religious backgrounds and present preferences of our respondents can be found in Chapter 2 (The Respondents: The Classes of 1972).

As a further indicator of religiosity we may also look at the distribution of responses to a question which dealt with attendance at religious services. As would be expected, overall attendance of some type is highest for those who still hold a religious preference of some kind. Within this group Catholics are more likely than others to indicate regular or occasional attendance. Women indicate more regular attendance than do males. For the entire sample the religious attendance profile is as follows: "How often do you attend religious services?"

Table 3.11

Current Religious Service Attendance

Attendance	%
Regularly	26
Occasionally	28
Rarely	28
Not at all	18
Total	100% (N=1850)

The religiosity question asked in the N.O.R.C. Study dealt with the degree to which the student thought of himself as religious as opposed to religious service attendance. The N.O.R.C. Report shows that twenty percent (20%) of the graduating seniors considered themselves to be "very religious," fifty percent (50%) "fairly religious," thirteen percent (13%) neither, ten percent (10%) "fairly non-religious" and six percent (6%) "very non-religious." Since personal feelings of religious identity are associated with attendance at religious services we believe it is appropriate to draw some conclusions based on a comparison of the two sets of data. Namely, we would equate our "rarely" and "not at all" religious service attenders with the "fairly non-religious" and "very non-religious" students of the N.O.R.C. sample. Such a combination and comparison leads to a difference of thirty percent (30%) with the current college seniors being somewhat less inclined to express a strong formalized religious orientation.

One final piece of evidence as to the differences in religiosity of this sample compared with the 1961 sample of graduating seniors is available. One item of our questionnaire in a series of self-descriptive adjectives dealt with religion. The students were asked to indicate the degree to which each item was characteristic of themselves. The item is question was "very-religious." The distribution of responses to this item is as follows:

Table 3.12

Self-Description of "Very Religious"

Self-Description	%
Much like me	8
Somewhat like me	29
Somewhat unlike me	18
Not like me at all	45
Total	100% (N=1851)

The distribution indicates that less than one-tenth (8%) of our respondents see themselves as "very religious" compared to the twenty percent (20%) of the "very religious" seniors reported in the N.O.R.C. Study. At the other extreme a comparison shows a difference of thirty-nine percent (39%) between the forty-five percent (45%) of the 1972 seniors indicating that they are not "very religious" and the six percent (6%) of the 1961 seniors who reported themselves as being "very non-religious." These apparent differences in religiosity are all the more important when it is recalled that few differences were found when political attitude comparisons were made between the two samples. The two sets of data, as well as other data which allow for the making of comparisons between the two samples, leads us to believe that there are some attitudinal areas in which the classes of 1972 differ from college graduates of the past decade. We would propose that it is in the more private, less visible, and less apparent areas of life that the attitudes and values expressed by our respondents in 1972 are at variance with those of the 1961 college seniors.

For example, in the areas of work the classes of 1972 place less importance on "making alot of money" than did the seniors of 1961. There also appears to be less emphasis upon the need to be "original and creative" and more expressed interest in the utilization of special skills and abilities. There is less concern with social prestige and status, and more stress upon being in a work setting where one can maintain his individuality. Finally, the respondents in our sample seem more committed to the belief that interpersonal relations and family relationships are not to be sacrificed or placed in a secondary position to one's career or one's work.

In the minds of the respondents themselves there is a belief that most contemporary college seniors are committed to changing some of the social ills of our society. Less than five percent (5%) see today's college students as "not at all committed." Twenty-three percent (23%) feel that contemporary college students are "very committed" and seventy-two percent (72%) believe they are "somewhat committed." The majority (66%) feel that student commitment to resolving social problems is different now than it was ten years ago, with college students today being more committed.

Seven statements dealing with sex role equality were included in the questionnaire. The discussion which follows will focus upon the three variables which seem to account for the observed variations found among this sample of college seniors. The three variables are sex, SES and race.

Table 3.13 shows the percentage distribution for each of the seven sex role equality statements. While the majority of students (80%) believe that men and women have equal capabilities and therefore, should have equal opportunities for work, there are a number of qualifications. First, there is a strong feeling that the physical characteristics of women are such that they could not handle certain kinds of work which are generally available to men. There are also a number of respondents (43%) who believe that women are generally more "emotional" than men and that this tendency would interfere with their doing certain types of work. A little more than a third (36%) feel that although there may be some areas of equality, women possess thinking patterns which tend to make them less efficient then men. About a fourth of the respondents (25%) take the position that men and women are not really equal; rather, that they are different and therefore should have different kinds of jobs. The smallest proportion of respondents go a step further adding that women function best in the traditional role of mother/wife and that the true woman is the women who devotes herself to her husband and her children.

Table 3.13

Sex Role Equality

Item	% In Agreement	Total N
In general, the physical characteristics of women make them unqualified for some types of work which are generally available to men.	82	(1834)
In general, women and men have equal capabilities and, therefore, should have equal opportunities for work.	80	(1840)
In general, women are more emotional than men, and this would interfere with their doing certain types of work.	43	(1830)
In general, women may be equal to men in some areas, but their thinking patterns are different from men, and they are therefore less efficient than men in some work.	36	(1833)
Women are not really "equal" to men; rather, they are different and should, therefore, have different kinds of jobs.	25	(1821)
Women function best in the roles of wife and mother.	22	(1815)
A true woman is happiest at home with her children and her husband.	17	(1819)

In table 3.14 the interplay between sex, SES, and sex role equality attitudes is portrayed. The distribution of responses leads to the following conclusion:

1) Regardless of socioeconomic background, females tend to be less accepting of the traditional sex role view and more embracing of sex role equality.

2) For both men and women the general pattern (with few exceptions) is for the higher SES groups to be more liberal in their views of women's work and family roles.

3) The women most likely to endorse the more traditional woman's role concept are Black females who are highly concentrated in the very-low SES group.

4) While many women and men are willing to challenge the notion that a woman's place is in the home, they are somewhat reluctant to challenge

Table 3.14

Sex, SES and Sex Role Equality

Percent Agreeing

	Man/Woman Equal		Equal Sometimes		Women are more emotional		Physical Character		Equal/ Different		Women best as wife/ mother		True woman happiest at home		Total	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M N	F N
Very-Low	72	82	40	32	56	43	84	79	32	22	37	16	29	15	(226)	(314)
Mid-Low	72	85	49	30	51	38	86	82	29	23	31	12	24	14	(193)	(206)
Mid-High	70	85	44	30	50	34	90	78	32	25	32	15	19	8	(171)	(158)
Very-High	78	90	44	22	42	26	82	77	24	14	26	9	18	7	(271)	(243)
Total %	73	85	44	28	50	36	85	79	29	21	31	13	23	11	(861)	(921)

> the notion that women are entitled to occupational and career equality with men. Men more so than women are hesitant in viewing women as having the emotional stability and necessary cognitive ability to compete in the world of work.

The majority of respondents in our sample also believe that they will be able to achieve their concept of the "good life." At the same time less than a fifth feel that the "good life" as they see it is easily attainable. Although SES differences are not large, those of the higher SES groups are more likely than others to believe that life goals are easily attainble. Seventy-two percent (72%) of all students believe that the "good life" is attainable through hard work. Nine percent (9%) believe they only have a slight probability of attaining the good life and two percent (2%) say it will be impossible. Males, slightly more so than females (12% to 7%), hold the more pessimistic outlook. Lower SES respondents tend to be more pessimistic than those of the higher SES backgrounds.

Two sets of items were utilized in order to assess the factors which students perceive as being potential barriers to the attainment of their desired goals. Through personal interviews and pre-tests we were able to identify two distinct types of potential barriers: External and Personal. Listed below are the items included in each set and the percentage distribution of responses. Respondents were invited to select as few or as many items that they felt were applicable to themselves.

Table 3.15
Potential Barriers to Goal Attainment

External Factors (N=1829)	%*	Personal Factors (N=1835)	%*
Overpopulation	35	Lack of opportunity-not getting right breaks	28
War	34	Lack of clear/positive aims	24
Pollution	29	Personal problems	21
Moral values of the nation	26	Goals are too high	11
Violence	25	Lack of ability	10
Racial conflict	19	Lack of training/edu.	10
None of the above	31	Family restrictions	9
		My sex	9
		My race	4
		None of the above	31

* Multiple category selection possible; percentages do not sum to 100.

There is only one External Factor item in which both sex and socioeconomic status produce a statistically significant relationship. The item is "over-population." Among males this item shows no significant variation by SES. For females there is a marked increase in the proportion selecting "over-population" with movement up the SES scale. The group of women expressing the least concern with over-population are those in the very-low SES group (26%). Those most concerned are the very-high SES group (44%). The remaining External Factors do not indicate much variation between the two sexes or among the four SES groups.

The Personal Factor responses indicate that our respondents' concerns are less with personal ability and training, and more with problems of "getting it all together." The barrier item most frequently selected deals with apprehensions about lack of opportunity and getting the right breaks. This item is closely followed by a lack of clear and positive aims. Personal problems rank third highest. No doubt these three items are interrelated and reflect the doubt some students feel about their futures. We know that many students feel that they were forced to make a choice about career selection before they were really prepared to make such a decision. (See Chapter 6, "The College Experience"). We also know that many students were concerned about their ability to find a job at the time they completed the questionnaire. Finally, we know that there are many students who are experiencing difficulties in establishing an acceptable fit between their personal life style preferences and the realities of the post-college adult world.

Unlike the External Factor set, there are a number of items in the Personal Factors which show significant variations when sex and SES are controlled. For example, males are more likely to indicate a concern about clear or positive aims (27% of the males and 20% of the females). Among males those of the very-high SES group show the greatest selection of this potential barrier (34% of the very-high SES versus 22% of the very-low SES group). Males of the mid-low SES group also are somewhat high on selection of this item.

Not surprisingly, Blacks much more so than whites indicate that their race may act as a barrier to goal attainment. Women more than men view their sex as a barrier. Among women it is those of the very-highest SES group who are most apprehensive about sex as a barrier. This finding is understandable since women in the very-high SES group are more likely to be in fields which are traditionally male-dominated.

Finally, among women, those in the very-low SES group are half as likely as all other women to indicate that their goals are too high. Again, it is important to remind the reader that the very-low female SES group is made up primarily of Blacks. The women in this group are predominately Education majors with comparatively low salary and graduate-school expectations.

Although some of the individual External Factors did obtain a larger proportion of responses than did the Personal Factors, our respondents see Personal Factors in general as having the greatest potential for prohibiting the attainment of their life goals. In response to the question: "Which set of factors listed above ('External' or 'Personal') do you feel would be most likely to prevent you from having the type of life you want?", we learn the following:

Table 3.16

Selection of Factors Perceived To Prohibit Attainment of Life Goals

Factors	Indicated Percentages (N=1849)
External	27
Personal	39
Both External and Personal	15
Neither External nor Personal	19
Total	100%

CHAPTER 4

THE RESPONDENTS: LIFE STYLE PREFERENCES AND EXPECTATIONS

The goals of Chapter 4 are to describe the expressed life style preferences and expectations of this sample of graduating seniors. Of key importance in this chapter are: 1) The role of the family and of friendships; 2) The place of work within the respondents' desired life styles; 3) The perceived similarities and dissimilarities in the life styles preferred by respondents compared with those of their parents; and 4) The basic components of desired life styles.

Central to life style expectations is a question concerning the marital arrangements which our respondents expect to have within the next five years. The categories and response frequencies for this item are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Sex, and Expected Marital Arrangements
Within the Next Five Years

	Males (902) %	Females (948) %
Unmarried	18	11
Unmarried but living with someone*	11	5
Married, with children	35	37
Married, without children	36	47
TOTAL	100%	100%

* It should be noted that no attempt was made to determine specifically either the sex or the number of individuals to whom the respondent was referring when he selected this response. Based on the extensive personal interviews conducted in conjunction with this report, we know that in the large majority of cases when a respondent stated that he intended to be "unmarried but living with someone," that someone was one individual of the opposite sex. In a few cases the reference was to same-sex person, and in even fewer cases, to a commune or community-based group.

Higher percentages of women expect to be married with the next five years than do males (84% of the women compared with 71% of the men). Of those who plan to marry within this time period, differences emerge in child bearing expectations. Males are almost evenly divided between those who plan on children and those who do not. Females are more likely to report that they plan on being married but with no children than they are to indicate marriage, with children.

Little difference occurs between the sexes in the proportion who expect to marry and have children; differences however, are found in responses to the other three marital status categories. Males are more likely than females to indicate that they expect to remain either "unmarried" (18%) or "unmarried but living with someone" (11%). While the twenty-nine percent (29%) who report such intentions is substantially greater than the sixteen percent (16%) of the females making such responses, the time parameter of the question (within the next five years) is probably an important factor in the participants' responses. Other data presented in this report have indicated that males are much more likely than females to pursue graduate school work. It is plausible therefore that males more so than females expect to defer marriage for at least five years because of their educational and career commitments. Had we extended the question to marital arrangements in ten years, we would undoubtably have found at least some of the twenty-nine percent (29%) of the male group moving into more typical family and marital situations.

An additional aspect of the male responses is that in virtually every instance where indices of conformity and traditionality were measured (except those of sex role equality attitudes), male attitudes and expectations reflect greater non-conformity and non-traditionality than do those of females.

More women than men report that they expect to be "married, without children" within the next five years (47% of the females; 36% of the males). Female responses undoubtably are influenced by the large number of women who intend to still be working at that time.

Frequently throughout this chapter the importance of family and family relationships emerges from the data. The picture of the type of family to which respondents apparently refer is, however, somewhat different from what might be anticipated. The traditional pattern of marriage, the wife working only a short time or not at all, and then relatively immediate child-bearing, does not appear to be the typical picture. Rather, we find women anticipating prolonged periods of employment both before and after marriage. In addition we find many female respondents intending to defer child bearing to some time well in the future.

Table 4.2 deals with respondents' sex, SES, and their expected marital-familial relationships.

Table 4.2

Sex, SES, and Expected
Marital Arrangements

	Unmarried		Living With Someone		Married With Children		Married No Children		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		
Very Low	17	13	9	3	43	41	31	43	(237)	(321)
Mid-Low	17	12	8	4	40	39	35	45	(203)	(213)
Mid-High	17	11	10	6	38	37	35	46	(178)	(166)
Very High	19	10	17	9	22	28	42	54	(284)	(248)
Total %	18	11	11	5	33	37	35	47	(902)	(948)

Similar SES impact patterns are reflected for both males and females in all categories except the "unmarried." In this case the males of higher SES backgrounds are most likely to say they plan on being "unmarried"; the reverse is true for females. Differences within the SES groups are quite small. The expectation of "unmarried but living with someone" is clearly class-linked, as are both of the married categories. The higher the SES, for both males and females, the more likely the student will indicate either the belief that he will be "unmarried but living with someone" or will be "married, without children." Conversely, the lower the SES, the more likely will be the reported expectation of marriage with children.

Analysis of the expected marital arrangements by the various fields of study indicate that the women who are most likely to expect "unmarried" or "unmarried but living with someone" statuses are in the fields of Business Administration (20%), the Biological Sciences (27%), Psychology (23%), and the Humanities (29%). (See Table 4.3).

Table 4.3

Field of Study, Sex, and Expected Marital Arrangements

	Unmarried		Live With Someone		Married/ Children		Married-No Children		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		
Bus. Ad.	21	20	9	0	32	27	38	53	(104)	(15)
Engineering	16	50	9	0	34	0	41	50	(117)	(2)
Physical Science	18	8	12	6	26	22	44	64	(73)	(36)
Education	13	10	6	3	55	42	26	45	(158)	(482)
Health Prof	11	10	33	0	45	46	11	44	(9)	(39)
Bio. Science	19	22	10	5	25	22	46	51	(57)	(45)
Psychology	10	13	10	10	37	24	43	53	(49)	(78)
Social Sciences	22	9	9	10	33	34	36	47	(182)	(77)
Humanities	22	17	27	12	22	27	29	44	(88)	(114)
Other	16	2	16	11	23	32	45	55	(51)	(47)
Total %	18	11	11	5	35	37	36	47	(896)	(936)

The Humanities majors, both males and females, appear to be the least inclined of all the field of study majors to pursue traditional marital and family forms. Almost one-half of the males (49%) and almost one-third of the females (29%) select either "unmarried" or "unmarried but living with someone."

An interesting group in our sample are the twelve percent (12%) who indicated that they expect to be "unmarried but living with someone" within the next five years. Those making such a response are more likely to be males (67%); to be enrolled at Latham (40%); to state their present religious affiliation as "none" (66%); and to be majoring in either the Social Sciences or the Humanities (combined total = 41%).

Data presented throughout this report indicate that females tend to be more traditional and conservative than males again, with the exception of their sex role equality attitudes. This picture is substantiated by the findings in response to questions dealing with anticipated familial-marital relation. Particularly for males of higher SES groups, such as those at Latham, the move from more traditional forms of behavior (such as religious affiliation) is accompanied as well by less traditional life style expectations.

Respondents were asked what they perceive to be the ideal relationship between work and family. The largest proportion (56%) selected the following alternative: "I expect that it will be necessary for my family and my home life to be somewhat affected by and to adapt to my career needs." This is probably a realistic assessment of the work-family pattern normally displayed by American families. Thirty-one percent (31%) responded, "I don't expect my career work to interfere with or influence my relationship with my family or my home life." This expectation would seem to indicate both a high degree of privatism (separation of "outside" activities from those of the home) and provide yet another indicator of the degree of importance that these students attribute to their family life. Little difference occurs between the responses of males and females on these two items. Fifty-eight percent (58%) of the males and fifty-five percent (55%) of the females expect career needs to "somewhat affect" home and family; thirty percent (30%) of the males and thirty-three percent (33%) of the females do not expect career needs to affect their family lives at all.

A very small percentage (6% of the males and 6% of the females) indicate that they do not expect to have a family. An equal percentage (6% of each sex) expect to have a family and home life but foresee that the demands of their careers will require substantial adjustments on the part of their families.

Analysis of this question concerning ideal relationships of work and family life by the various college majors revealed no statistically significant differences for either the males or the females. Even in those fields of study which typically imply occupations which are unusually demanding in terms of time and energy commitments, the percentage distributions reflect the general patterns described above.

Although analysis of the relationship between the types of life styles desired by our respondents and those of their parents has been briefly discussed in Chapter 3 (The Respondents: What They Believe), additional data will be presented here. While we do not know the specifics to which any individual student may have been referring, the largest percentage of respondents (40%) indicated that they prefer "A life style quite unlike that of my parents" compared with the thirty-two percent (32%) who reported they prefer a life style "very similar to that of my parents." Differences in response are only slightly affected by the sex of the respondent.

As would be expected, the key variable in the student's perception of his parent's life style desirability is the socioeconomic standing of the family. Table 4.4 describes the relationship between SES and life style preferences.

Table 4.4

Sex, SES, and Desired Similarities/Differences of own Life with that of Parents

SES	Very Similar		Less Possess.		More Possess.		Unlike		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	(N)	(N)
Very Low	22	28	8	11	20	17	50	43	(237)	(318)
Mid-Low	26	34	8	9	22	17	45	41	(199)	(212)
Mid-High	32	38	15	16	18	13	35	34	(179)	(167)
Very High	41	38	19	17	6	9	35	36	(284)	(247)
Total %	31	34	13	13	16	14	41	39	(899)	(944)

The most striking feature of Table 4.4 is the linear relationship between the student's SES and his desire to have a life style "very similar" or "quite unlike" that of his parents. The SES influence is particularly strong for males. For example, male students who come from homes of highest socioeconomic standing are almost twice as likely as those of the lowest socioeconomic group to state that they would like to have life styles similar to those of their parents. Conversely, students of lowest socioeconomic backgrounds are most likely to report that they seek life styles quite unlike those of their parents.

Another alternative response, "A life style somewhat similar to that of my parents but without the need for so many material goods and possessions," was checked by thirteen percent (13%) of the respondents. These students were almost twice as likely to come from the higher SES groups than from the lower. Relatively small differences were reported between the two sexes for any of the category responses.

The general patterns which emerged from SES analysis are clear. Students from homes which have been economically comfortable are quite likely to state that they prefer life styles either "very similar" to that of their parents or else "somewhat similar to parents but without the need for so many material goods and possessions." A combined total of sixty percent (60%) of the highest SES males and fifty-five percent (55%) of the highest SES females made this type of response compared with thirty percent (30%) of the lowest SES males and thirty-nine percent (39%) of the lowest SES females. Students of low socioeconomic backgrounds are likely to report that they prefer life styles either "quite unlike" that of parents or "somewhat similar to parents but with more in the way of material goods and possessions" (70% of the very low SES males and 60% of the very low SES females).

Analysis of the question (desired type of life style) by field of study revealed statistically significant differences for both males and females. Students most likely to report the desirability of their parent's life style were in the fields of Agriculture (56%), Engineering (44%), Education (40%), and the Physical Sciences (37%). Those least likely to make such a choice are in the fields of the Social Sciences (28%), Psychology (23%), and the Humanities (22%).

We were interested in the degree of difficulty which students perceive exists in the attainment of their life style preferences. They were asked "How attainable do you feel your concept of the 'good life' will be?"

Most of the students (90%) feel that they will be able to attain the "good life." They believe that hard work is the key to the attainment of their goals. Seventy-two percent (72%) of the total sample make this response. There is a slight tendency for the higher SES male students to be less emphatic in the belief that the "good life" will be "attainable through hard work" than the general sample; in turn, they are somewhat more likely to see the good life as "easily attainable" (22% of the very high SES male students vs. 14% of those of the very low group). Very few students (1%) foresee that the attainment of their goals will be "impossible," while an additional nine percent (9%) fall into the category, "very difficult to attain; only slight possibility of attaining it."

Five profiles of alternative life styles were developed to further assess the preferences and expectations of our respondents. These profiles centered around the following descriptions:

#1) A life reflecting privition and a primary involvement with the family.

#2) A life reflecting a relatively balanced involvement between private and public life.

#3) A life reflecting an intense involvement with outside activities, particularly those of social relevance.

#4) A life free of family responsibilities and characterized by total involvement with political and social concerns.

#5) A life reflecting total freedom of movement, unencumbered by either family or social concerns.

The largest single proportion of the seniors (46%) felt that their future life styles would reflect #2 above, a balance between private and public involvements. Females were slightly more likely to make this choice than were males (48% of the women compared with 43% of the men). In general however, there was little difference between the response percentages of the males and females. Socioeconomic background does not produce statistically significant differences.

Distinct differences emerge when life style preferences are analyzed by the various fields of study. Students most likely to report the expectation of the balanced private and public life described in #2 were males in Engineering (59%), Agriculture (50%), the Biological Sciences (49%), and Education (47%); and females in Education (57%), the Health Professions (51%), and the Social Sciences (47%).

While #1, "A life reflecting privacy and a primary involvement with the family" was selected by nineteen percent (19%) of the respondents, the same proportion (19%) chose #5, "A life reflecting total freedom of movement, unencumbered by either family or social concerns." If the two response categories which indicate a primary degree of commitment to family life (#1 and #2) are considered, two-thirds (66%) of the total sample indicate such a position. This finding fits well into the profile of ideal family and work relationships discussed above.

An almost equal number of males and females report the desire to be free of both social and familial restraints so that they could move about and explore alternatives. It should be noted however that the description of this life style alternative contained a time limitation of five years. It is likely that some if not most of the seventeen percent (17%) of the total sample who selected this response would expect to settle down into more traditional family patterns after that time. For males, those most likely to seek this initial freedom were in the Humanities (36%). In fact, Humanities majors were the only males who listed this life style alternative ahead of the balanced life alternative (36% vs. 25%).

Females in those majors traditionally pursued by women are far less likely to report an interest in pursuing alternatives such as #5 (total freedom of movement) than are those in the typically male dominated fields of study. For example, forty-seven percent (47%) of the women in Business Administration, thirty percent (30%) in Others, and twenty-eight percent (28%) in the Biological Sciences state that they expect to forego family and social commitments for at least five years in order to have the freedom of mobility.

Data discussed throughout this report have frequently indicated that women involved in fields of study typically populated by men frequently express attitudes which differ from those of women in more traditionally female-oriented and populated fields. It would appear that these women reflect deviation from the norm not only in the selection of a college major, but in other areas as well.

Analysis of the relationship between the respondents' political affiliations and their life style expectations and preferences revealed statistically significant differences. Table 4.5 presents the findings of these data.

It can be seen that those students selecting the "balanced life" are most likely to either be political Moderates (61%) or Conservatives (52%), or else hold "no firm attitudes." Respondents in this latter group (no firm attitudes) were considerably more likely than either the Conservatives or the Moderates to select the #5 category, "freedom to explore."

As with the case with the Moderates, the Conservatives, and those with no firm attitudes, most Liberals prefer a "balanced life style" (41%). The Liberals were also more likely to indicate a desire for item #5 "freedom to

Table 4.5

Life Style Preferences and Present Political Attitude

Political Attitude	#1 Private Life	#2 Balanced Life	#3 Social Life With Family	#4 Social Life Without Family	#5 Freedom to Explore	#6 Other	N
	%	%	%	%	%	%	
No firm attitude	17	48	4	6	19	6	(341)
Conservative	22	52	4	6	12	3	(148)
Moderate	20	61	3	3	11	2	(492)
Liberal	16	41	7	9	22	5	(613)
Radical Left	29	13	16	23	12	7	(83)
Radical Right	0	0	0	0	100	0	(3)
No Attitudes	34	24	2	3	30	6	(96)
I Don't Know	30	41	9	4	15	0	(46)
Other	20	33	0	7	13	26	(15)
TOTAL %	20	46	5	7	18	5	(1837)

explore" than for item #1 "private life" (22% selecting the former compared with 16% selecting the latter).

Although students in the Radical Left and the No Firm Attitudes categories each represent only five percent (5%) of the sample, they displayed interesting variations from the response patterns of those holding other political orientations. For both (Radical Left and No Firm Attitudes), the most popular item is #1, reflecting an inclination toward privatism and a sense of emphasis upon the family. Relatively few students in either of these two groups fell into "balanced life" category so popular with the other political groups (13% of the Radical Left and 24% of the No Attitudes). Members of the Radical Left were the only group to fall heavily into the #4 item (a total involvement with political and social concerns 23%). When the twenty-three percent (23%) responding in this category are added to the sixteen percent (16%) responding to #3 (an intense involvement with outside activities, particularly those of social relevance), an interesting pattern emerges for the Radical Left students. Over one-third of them (39%) expect to continue actively in their social and political concerns; close to another one-third (29%) indicated an inclination to turn their attention to more privitistic concerns and family life. Those remaining are nearly equally divided between the traditional family-work pattern indicated by #2 and the desire for freedom to explore (#5).

Students of the No Firm Attitudes group reflect an even stronger tendency toward privatism (34% in category #1) and a forestalling of either familial or societal responsibilities (30% in category #5).

In general then, while the forms of family patterns which students expect to establish do vary by sex, political orientation, work expectations, and childbearing plans, the majority of students intend to marry and develop life styles balanced with family, work, and social concerns.

As part of an effort to determine the critical components of the life style preferences of our respondents, they were given a list of characteristics and asked to rate the three which they felt to be of greatest importance to them. The question and alternative categories are as follows:

49. Which of the following do you feel are the most important factors in defining the life style which you would like to have in five years? (Circle three and indicate the order of importance in the indicated space. 1=Most Important; 2=Second Most Important; 3=Third Most Important)

good family relationships
freedom to pursue your own interests
favorable geographical location
good friends
freedom from financial worry
a challenging job
steady, secure employment
opportunities for meaningful work
access to art institutes, music theatre, etc.
other (Circle & specify.)

Table 4.6 provides the percentage frequencies with which each response was selected as the first, second, and third most important factor.

Table 4.6

First, Second, and Third Most Important Factor
Defining Desired Life Style

Life Style Characteristics	#1 Factor %	#2 Factor %	#3 Factor %	Combined %
Good Family Relationships	52	12	6	70
Freedom to Pursue Own Interests	11	12	13	36
Favorable Geographic Location	0	4	11	15
Good Friends	6	18	21	45
Freedom from Financial Worry	10	19	15	44
A Challenging Job	6	12	8	26
Steady, Secure Employment	6	10	8	24
Opportunities for Meaningful Work	7	12	11	30
Access to Art Institutes, Music, Theatre, Etc.	1	1	7	9
Other	1	0	0	1
Total N	(1819)	(1815)	(1812)	

It is obvious from the preceding Table 4.6 that these young people place family relationships far higher than any other variable as the key component to their future life styles. Approximately three-quarters (70%) of the respondents select family relationships as either their first, second, or third most important consideration.

While the item referring to freedom from financial worry received the expected substantial percentages of students considering it a relevant life style component (44%), it was equalled by the empahsis upon good friends (45%). Of the four categories listed in Table 4.6 which deal with work and career factors, only the "Freedom From Financial Worry"item is mentioned by over one-third of the respondents. It would appear from the responses to this question, that students do not believe their future work will interfere with the life styles they hope to follow.

Three distinct levels of concern emerge in the importance of various life style characteristics. First, respondents value their family relationships and good friends as highly important. While the percentages of respondents who indicate "freedom from financial worry" does equal that of those reporting "good friends," other data (and the in-depth interviews) show that in most cases students perceive money as a means to enhancing the other elements of the "good life" rather than the amassing of wealth for the sake of money or power itself.

Below this level of family and friendship importance, the respondents considered the factors of the job situation (challenging job, 26%; steady, secure employment, 24%; opportunities for meaningful work, 30%). It is clear then that in general work may be considered a facilitator of the good life but not necessarily a key component. At the third level, of least concern, were the more pragmatic items of a favorable geographic location (15%) and access to cultural events and activities (9%).

Interesting differences are found between males and females in their indications of the number one and number two most important life style characteristics. As might be expected, females are more likely to emphasize the importance of good family relationships (66% of the females vs. 60% of the males); they are also a little more likely to report meaningful work (21% of the females vs. 17% of the males), and freedom from money problems (31% of the females vs. 26% of the males). Males more so than females indicate that the pursuing of their own interests has high priority (26% of the males vs. 19% of the females).

The pattern of male concern tends to be that good family relationships have the highest priority (60% of all the males include this item as either the most important or second most important characteristic of their life styles,) followed by an equal distribution between pursuing their own interests (26%), freedom from money problems (26%), and having good friends (25%). For females also, the highest priority is having good family relationships (66%), followed by freedom from money problems (31%) and having good friends (24%)

Analysis of the responses to this question by the variable of socioeconomic status revealed some statistically significant differences, particularly among the males. Table 4.7 presents the most important and second most important characteristics by Sex and SES.

Table 4.7

Sex, SES, and Combined First and Second Most Important Life Style Elements

SES	Family Relationships		Own Interests		Good Geographic Location		Good Friends		No Money Problems	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%	
Very Low	63	70	25	19	4	3	26	22	27	33
Mid Low	65	61	24	14	5	4	24	22	32	33
Mid High	65	71	24	22	7	2	28	24	25	28
Very High	53	63	31	22	8	3	29	26	22	29
TOTAL %	60	66	26	19	6	3	25	24	26	31

	Challenging Job		Steady Employment		Meaning Work		Cult Access		Others		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%		%		%		%		%		%	
Very Low	15	14	25	17	17	19	4	2	2	0	(232)	(309)
Mid Low	12	20	26	23	11	20	2	1	2	3	(195)	(209)
Mid High	21	19	15	13	14	19	1	2	1	1	(178)	(162)
Very High	22	21	9	7	22	24	2	3	3	3	(283)	(248)
TOTAL %	18	18	18	15	17	21	2	2	2	2		

For both males and females of the highest SES groups, there is less tendency to report the importance of good family relationships than in the other SES groups. The females of both the highest and lowest SES groups attach more importance to family relationships than do males.

In all socioeconomic groups, the males are somewhat more likely than females to indicate the importance of good friends and pursuing their own interests. Females and those of the lower SES groups are slightly more likely to report an emphasis upon freedom from money problems.

Life style items which reflect job characteristics (challenging job, steady employment, meaningful work) are also influenced by socioeconomic levels. Those of the highest SES group tend to place considerably less emphaiss upon steady employment than do those of the lowest SES group (9% of the males and 7% of the females in the highest compared with 25% of the males and 17% of the females in the lowest group). Respondents of the higher SES groups also attribute greater importance to the need for meaningful work and a challenging job.

Analysis of critical life style characteristics by field of study shows the following variations for males:*

1) Humanities majors fall considerably below the average in reporting the importance of good family relationships (44% vs. the male average of 60%). Engineering and Education majors are above the average (69% for Engineer and 66% for Education majors).

2) Students in the fields of Psychology, the Humanities, and Others are eight to ten percent (8%-10%) above the norm in selecting the "pursuing their own interests" item.

3) The importance of good friends is reported with frequencies considerably above the norm (25%) by students in the fields of Business Administration (36%) and the Humanities (33%).

4) In the item reflecting concern for freedom from money worries, percentages ranged from the sixty-three percent (63%) of the Health Professions, thirty-three percent (33%) of Social Sciences, thirty-two percent (32%) of Business Administration, and thirty-one percent (31%) of the Education majors to the low responses of fourteen percent (14%) of the Humanities and the seventeen percent (17%) of the Psychology majors.

5) Steady employment is a critical factor of above average importance to the Education majors (33% vs. the male mean of 18%). It is of considerably less importance to the Humanities (11%) and the Psychology (6%) majors.

6) While the male average for the importance of meaningful work is seventeen percent (17%), the range is from twenty-seven percent (27%) of the Psychology and twenty-three percent (23%) of the Humanities majors to the low of ten percent (10%) for the Education and eleven percent (11%) for the Engineering majors.

*Responses for the #1 and #2 characteristics have been combined for this analysis.

For the females, the general pattern of important life style characteristics (family relationships, freedom from financial worry, and good friends) shows the following variation:

1) Females in the traditionally female-held fields of study are more likely to report the importance of good family relationships than are those in the more traditionally male-held majors. Seventy percent (70%) of the Education and seventy-one percent (71%) of the Health Profession majors make such a selection compared with fifty-six percent (56%) of the Biological Science and fifty-four percent (54%) of the Psychology majors. Females in such traditionally male-dominated fields of study are also more likely than other women to report the importance of pursuing their own interests (27% of the Business Administration and 29% of the Psychology majors).

2) While the female average reporting of the importance of good friends is twenty-four percent (24%), women in some fields report higher frequencies (Biological Sciences, 36%; Business Administration, 33%; Psychology, 29%; and Physical Sciences, 29%).

3) The range of responses in the freedom from financial worry category is from the forty-two percent (42%) of the Health Professions and forty-seven percent (47%) of the Business Administration majors to the seventeen percent (17%) of the Psychology majors.

4) Almost one-quarter (22%) of the Education majors cite steady employment as either the first or second most important factor in their future life styles. This pattern differs from that usually found for either males or females. Only one other field of study, the Health Professions, nears the Education majors' emphasis upon steady employment; sixteen percent (16%) of them made this response.

5) Unusually high percentages of females in two fields report the importance of meaningful work; they are Psychology (37%) and the Social Sciences (32%). As with the Education majors, this response differs considerably from the (good family relationships; freedom from money problems; and good friends) patterns normally found for women.

In sum, it would appear that little difference exists between the sexes in the high priority with which they regard the importance of good family relationships, supported by a degree of economic comfort and good friends. Males are slightly more likely to be concerned with the pursuit of their own interests. While analysis of these items by socioeconomic background does reveal some statistically significant differences (for example, in the degree of concern with the employment-related variables of job challenge and steady employment, and meaningful work), the students' field of study appears to be the variable contributing greater impact. General patterns emerge for both males and females; however certain majors are more likely to deviate from these normative patterns than are others. For example, Education majors (both males and females) report above average frequencies of the importance of steady employment; and majors in the Social Sciences and Psychology are heavily represented in the categories of meaningful work.

In order to more fully understand what are the more subtle, underlying elements of a concept such as "good family relationships" or "a private life," several vignettes describing a wide range of life styles were developed. These life style descriptions were presented in paragraph form, broken into key elements, and then evaluated in terms of "most desirable" and "least desirable" characteristics.

Table 4.8 presents the vignettes, the basic elements of the life styles, and the percentage frequencies with which the seniors responded.

Table 4.8

Life Style Vignettes and Key Elements

Question: "Please read the following descriptions and indicate which of the characteristics of each you most like and least like."

	Life Style Vignette	Key Elements	most liked %	least liked %
#1)	You, your family, and your friends have decided upon a communal life style. You all contribute to the cohesiveness and self-sufficiency of the group. Your emphasis is not so much on the quantity of the things which you possess but rather upon the quality of the human relationships in your life.	communal life style	1	71
		group cohesiveness	7	8
		self-sufficiency	13	9
		quality of human relationships	73	1
		de-emphasis on quantity of possessions	6	11
		Total %	100	100
			(1622)	(1680)
#2)	You are a loner. While you may or may not enjoy the company of others, your primary interest is in remaining flexible and mobile in your life style. Your work encourages, perhaps even requires, that you travel frequently and alone. You require a great deal of freedom in relationships, freedom to move.	solitude	9	68
		mobility	19	2
		freedom in relationships	33	3
		freedom to travel	36	0
		employment necessitating travel	3	27
		Total %	100	100
			(1616)	(1672)
#3)	Yours is an effort to lead a "comfortable" life. You would like the usual benefits of a happy family, a secure job, standardized work hours, etc. While you would like the "good life" (car, home, vacations, etc.), you are not really concerned with amassing large amounts of goods or possessions.	happy family	81	1
		job security	6	7
		"the good life"	11	26
		possession of "enough" goods	2	66
		Total %	100	100
			(1614)	(1646)

Table 4.8 (con't)

	Life Style Vignette	Key Elements	most liked %	least liked %
#4)	Yours is a life style which you perceive to be more flexible than that of the surrounding culture, but you still utilize parts of that culture for your own needs. You see yourself as having friend and family relationships which are more open and flexible than most; you seek employment which is less restrictive, with less emphasis on security and steadiness. You are a "part" of the system, but you have your own style.	interaction with the larger culture	18	25
		semi-open and flexible family/friend relationships	48	12
		more flexible employment	23	21
		"fringe" of culture	11	42
		Total %	100	100
			(1630)	(1672)
#5)	You are vitally concerned with the social problems of this country. Not only have you committed yourself to finding solutions, but you expect your family life to reflect that concern. You have little interest in the more material aspects of living; rather, you are concerned with aiding fellow humans.	concern with social issues	9	19
		personal commitment to ideal or belief	27	11
		the helping role	14	7
		family commitment	10	27
		lack of interest in material gains	3	35
		concern with other people	37	1
		Total %	100	100
			(1613)	(1654)
#6)	You want to "make it." You expect to acquire the material possessions which only large amounts of money can obtain. You are willing to work long and hard to achieve financial success. Your family reflects both adjustment to and appreciation of your need to work and make money.	emphasis on acquisition	3	63
		financial success	42	4
		need for hard work	31	14
		family adjustment to work needs	24	19
		Total %	100	100
			(1641)	(1649)

The three life style elements which received the highest "most liked" frequencies were "quality of human relationships" (Vignette #1), seventy-three percent (73%); "happy family" (Vignette #3), eighty-one percent (81%); and "semi-open and flexible family/friend relationships" (Vignette #4), forty-eight percent (48%). Factors which produced the strongest negative responses ("least liked") were "communal life style" (Vignette #1), seventy-one percent (71%); "solitude" (Vignette #2), sixty-eight percent (68%); "enough goods" (Vignette #3), sixty-six percent (66%); and "emphasis on acquisition" (Vignette #6), sixty-three percent (63%). In addition to the prevalent pattern of family relationships holding highest priority in future life style preferences and expectations, the respondent attitudes toward money and material possessions remain highly consistent. That is, the majority of these students do not perceive material goods as key factors in the lives they intend to live.

The respondents were subsequently asked which of the vignettes would they like to live themselves and which do they actually expect to live. Table 4.9 presents the responses to both of these questions.

Table 4.9

Sex, and Preferred and Expected
Life Styles Described in Vignettes 1-6

Life Style Vignette	Life Style Desired		Life Style Expected	
	M	F	M	F
	%	%	%	%
#1	5	4	4	3
#2	8	4	7	4
#3	37	40	46	56
#4	32	33	25	23
#5	9	13	6	7
#6	9	7	12	7
Total %	100	100	100	100
	(883)	(916)	(878)	(917)

Two types of discrepancies are readily apparent. First, there is a shift from the thirty-nine percent (39%) of the total respondents who indicate that they desire the traditionally-oriented Life Style #3, to the fifty-two percent (52%) who actually expect to live it. Most of those who shift into #3 as an expectation come from Life Style #4 (which is characterized by essentially traditional behavior somewhat modified by more flexible and open-ended human relationships). Additionally there is a slight drop in the total percentage who report an interest in the life style reflecting a commitment to social problems (#5) from the 11% who desire such a life to the 6% who actually expect to live it.

The second type of substantial discrepancy occurs between the sexes. While the move from the desire for the more traditional life style (#3) to the expectation of it occurs for nine percent (9%) of the males, sixteen percent (16%) of the females make such a move. While virtually no differences emerge between the sexes in either their preferences or expectations for either the communal structure or open-ended structure (Vignette #1 and #4), males are slightly more likely than females to desire life styles characterized by flexibility and independence (#2), commitment to social problems (#5), or the accumulation of wealth (#6).

The responses to the desirability of the Vignette life styles have been analyzed according to the fields of study. Predictably, those majors more traditionally oriented are most likely to report heavily into life styles #3 and #4. Some variations by major include the following:

Life Style #1 (communal living; emphasis on human relationships): The largest field of study percentages were eight percent (8%) reported by Psychology majors and fourteen percent (14%) reported by the Humanities majors. While the over-all sample responses to this item was five percent (5%), most majors reported about three percent (3%) in this category.

Life Style #2 (mobility and solitude): Highest in their frequencies to this alternative were the Physical Science majors (10%) and the Humanities majors (12%). Lowest were the Psychology majors (2%).

Life Style #3 (stereotypic American family): While the overall sample selection of this item was thirty-nine percent (39%), the percentages of the Psychology (23%), Social Sciences (26%) and Humanities (23%) majors were below that average. The Psychology and Social Sciences majors are instead unusually represented in the life style #5 (commitment to social problems). Majors in the fields of Engineering, Physical Science, Education, and the Health Professions are all almost twice as likely to select life Style #3 than are the Psychology, Social Sciences, or Humanities majors.

Life Style #4 (also normative behavior patterns but with room for more individuality): Two groups were unusually low in their response to this item. Only twenty-three percent (23%) of the Education and twenty-three percent (23%) of the Health Profession majors reported a desire for this type of life style compared with the overall sample response of thirty-two percent (32%). Both Education and Health Profession majors were high in their selection of Life Style #3 as their preference.

Life Style #5 (commitment to resolving social problems): As mentioned above, the two majors who report the largest percentages of students with this preference are Psychology (17%) and the Social Sciences (20%).

Life Style #6 (the accumulation of wealth): Only one major reported substantial percentages of its students in this category. Seventeen percent (17%) of the Business Administration majors indicated that they desire to live this type of life style. Lowest percentages came from the Psychology majors (2%).

The level of parent income also is related to the perceived desirability of these life style alternatives.. Students from homes with high incomes show a preference for the normative, but flexible structure of Life Style #4, while those of lower incomes are more likely to indicate Life Style #3. The parent income bracket most likely to be associated with a student interested in Life Style #6 (emphasizing money and material wealth) is that of "over $40,000." Almost one-fifth (19%) of the students from such backgrounds select Life Style #6. The two lowest income brackets (less than $5,000 and

$5,000 to $7, 499) report sixteen percent (16%) and seventeen percent (17%) respectively in Life Style #5 (social concerns commitment) compared with the seven percent (7%) making such a choice from the $30,000-$40,000 income level.

Utilization of the SES scale also revealed statistically significant differences for both males and females in their perception of life style desirability. For both sexes the higher the SES, the lower the preference for #3 (the more traditional American family pattern) and the higher their preference for Life Style #4 which suggests greater flexibility in behaviors and attitudes.

In general, these students desire life styles which are basically normative and traditional in structure, with some adaptation for more individualism and flexibility. Overall, there is little interest in communal, solitary, or wealth-oriented living. Nor is there much interest in devoting one's life to social concerns and problems. These general patterns in perceived desirability are only moderately affected by the sex of the respondent. Females are slightly more likely than males to select Life Styles #3 (stereotypical American family) and #5 (commitment to resolving social problems); males are slightly more likely to select #6 (the accumulation of wealth) and #2 (mobility and flexibility).

As discussed earlier, differences occurred between the desired life styles of our respondents and those they actually expect to live. (See Table 4.9 for the responses of males and females for expected life styles). Particularly for females, there is a significant increase from their expressed desire for Life Style #3 (40%) to their expectation of it (56%). Within this sixteen percent (16%) increase, about two-thirds appear to come from Life Style #4; the other one-third tend to come from Life Style #5. These individuals seem to expect that it will either be necessary for them to give up some freedom and flexibility (Live Style #4) or else their involvement in social conditions (Life Style #5).

This same pattern of change holds for the males as well. While the shift from desired life style to expected life style is not as great for males as for females (a 9% jump in Life Style #3 compared with the females 16% jump described above), the move to the normative style (#3) from Life Styles #4 and #5 is the same. The only exception for the males is a slight increase of three percent (3%) from the preference to the expectation of Life Style #6 (the accumulation of wealth.) The variables used in the analysis of preferred life styles (SES, parental income, and field of study) produced very similar patterns when used in analysis of the expected life styles. For example, students of highest SES are more likely to expect to live Life Style #4 than are students of other SES standings; and they are less likely than others to report the expectation of Life Style #3.

In summary, this chapter on expected and preferred life styles has revealed the following. As might be expected, the majority of our respondents intend to be married within five years; more than one-half of those who plan to marry do not intend to begin child rearing within that time period. Rather, the expectancy pattern appears to be prolonged employment for both marital partners, combined with deferred and probable limited child-bearing. Eleven percent (11%) of the males and five percent (5%) of the females indicate that they intend to be "unmarried but living with someone."

When students compare the life styles which they would like to live with those of their parents, the most critical variable in their responses is socioeconomic background. Those from homes of high SES are considerably more likely to report they would like life styles "very similar" to those of their parents than are students from homes of low SES background. Optimism runs high in their attitudes toward the attainability of the "good life." Ninety percent (90%) reflect such a belief, particularly when the element "through hard work" is added.

Data obtained through several questions discussed in this chapter again and again reveal the importance of family relationships and good friends to our respondents. It would appear that these two life style elements constitute the "building blocks" upon which other satisfying aspects of their future life styles will be built. While freedom from financial worry is frequently mentioned, it is clear that in most cases, the role of money is perceived as supportive but not primary to their lives.

The importance of family life to the majority of these students is evident. The picture which has emerged of their future life style preferences and expectations, and the important characteristics of those life styles, is typically not one of deviation or even of alternative family patterns such as communal or non-marital living arrangements. Rather, at least on the surface, these young adults reflect attitudes and behavior expectancies which are very much within the American normative range.

CHAPTER 5

THE RESPONDENTS: THE WORLD OF WORK AND CAREERS

In this chapter we focus more specifically upon the post college plans and career expectations of the classes of 1972. Our goal is to provide answers to the following questions:

1) What are the major fields of study in which our respondents have been enrolled?

2) In what ways are sex and socioeconomic status associated with variations in major field of study enrollments?

3) What are the specific career choices of our respondents and how are these career preferences related to sex and SES? To what extent have career plans changed for our respondents?

4) What are the personality characteristics of students majoring in the different fields of study?

5) What is the work-value orientation of students majoring in the different fields of study?

6) What are the immediate post college plans of our respondents? What discrepancies are found when comparisons are made between post-college preferences and post-college expectations? What differences are found between those enrolled in different fields of study?

7) What are the salary expectations of graduating seniors?

8) What was the employment status of our respondents at the time of their participation in this study?

9) What are their perceptions of the job market and what are their job-related concerns and plans?

10) What kinds of employment seeking resources are utilized by our respondents?

From the data collected in this research and from evidence obtained in other research dealing with career outcomes, it is apparent that a variety of variables influence career and work choices. Both psychological and sociological factors contribute to how people view themselves and how they go about the business of selecting and then attaining a particular career setting.

In this chapter we examine the relationships between certain more personal values, a variety of sociological factors, and career perferences. We begin with an analysis of the major fields of study in which our respondents are enrolled.

As Table 5.1 indicates, the largest single group of seniors are enrolled in the field of Education (36% of the total). The 1961 N.O.R.C. study of graduating seniors also found Education to be the most populated field of

Table 5.1

Field of Study

	%	N
Education	35	(642)
Social Sciences	14	(262)
Humanities	11	(203)
Psychology	7	(128)
Business Administration	6	(119)
Engineering	6	(119)
Physical Sciences	6	(109)
Biological Sciences	6	(103)
Other	5	(100)
Health Professions	3	(48)
Agriculture	1	(9)
	100	(1842)

study. The second largest group are enrolled in the Social Sciences, followed by the Humanities, and then Psychology. The combination of the Social Science, Humanities, and Psychology majors constitutes almost one-third (32%) of all majors. In comparison the Biological and the Physical Sciences represent twelve percent (12%) of the total sample. The remaining one-fifth of the seniors are distributed as follows: Six percent (6%), Business Administration; six percent (6%), Engineering; five percent (5%), "Other" (predominately Fine Arts and Inter-Disciplinary majors); and three percent (3%), Health Professions. Nine Students are Agriculture majors.

In spite of apparent methodological difficulties, it is possible to make some comparisons in major field enrollments between our sample and the N.O.R.C. 1961 sample of graduating seniors. Where comparisons are possible, we obtain the following results:

Education. In both samples the single largest proportion of seniors have been enrolled in Education. In the N.O.R.C. sample twenty-seven percent (27%) were Education majors. In the current sample the proportion is thirty-five percent (35%).

Business Administration. Here the differences are somewhat greater. In the N.O.R.C. Study thirteen percent (13%) were majoring in Business Administration; in our sample the percentage is less than half that (6%).

Engineering. Six percent (6%) of our sample and nine percent (9%) of the N.O.R.C. sample are Engineering majors. In both samples twelve percent (12%) indicate enrollment in Physical and Biological Sciences.

Social Sciences. There is a difference of six percent (6%) between the current sample (14%) enrolled in the Social Sciences and the eight percent (8%) in the N.O.R.C. sample.

Psychology. In the N.O.R.C. sample, three percent (3%) majored in Psychology; in the current sample, the percentage is seven percent (7%).

Humanities. A difference of five percent (5%) was found, with eleven percent (11%) of the 1972 graduateng seniors majoring in the Humanities compared with sixteen percent (16%) of the 1961 graduating seniors.

Health Profession. Four percent (4%) in the N.O.R.C. sample and three percent (3%) in our sample report being in Health Profession majors.

Agriculture. In both samples Agriculture majors were the smallest group representing a little less than one percent (1%) of the total sample population.

The greatest differences between the two study groups are found in Education, Business Administration, and the Social Sciences. While keeping in mind the admitted limitations of the comparisons we would proppse that the differences presented are more a function of differences in the demographic characteristics of the two student populations than they are an indication of changes in the general career orientation of students.

There are two major differences in the demographic composition of the two samples. First, the current sample has a greater proportion of female students (51%) compared to forty percent (40%) for the N.O.R.C. sample. Second, almost ten percent (9.6%) of the current sample consists of Blacks. Among the N.O.R.C. participants the total proportion of all nonwhites was six percent (6%), with Blacks constituting only three percent (3%) of the total sample. These two factors are particularly influential in explaining many of the observed differences between the two study populations. Females and Blacks tend to be heavily located in Education and the Social Sciences. Both females and Blacks are underrepresented in a number of fields, particularly Business Administration and Engineering.

Based on this comparison betweenthe 1961 and 1972 field of study enrollments, we would conclude that there is little evidence of significant differences in the major field choices of current college seniors and those who graduated a decade earlier.

We also find little difference when comparisons are made between the proportion of female students enrolled in each major. In both samples the majority of Education majors are female. In both samples the smallest proportion of females are found in Business Administration, Engineering, and Agriculture. In both samples (following the large numbers enrolled in Education) Psychology, Humanities, and the Health Professions are the majors with the largest proportions of females. Finally, for both samples the Biological and Physical Sciences and the Social Sciences fall between the Health Professions and Business Administration.

Since the current sample has a larger proportion of women than did the N.O.R.C. sample, women (with one exception) make up a greater portion of the students in each of the major fields in our study. The one exception is Engineering, in which women participating in the N.O.R.C. Study comprised six percent (6%) as compared to two percent (2%) in the current study. In both studies the females are overrepresented in Education, Psychology, and the Humanities; they are underrepresented in Physical and Biological Sciences, Social Sciences, Business Administration, Engineering, and Agriculture.

As the earlier discussion points out, the respondents' sex is very much associated with major field enrollment. Socioeconomic status is yet another factor which contributes to variations in field of study and ultimate career selection.

The impact of SES becomes operative prior to enrollment in college in three ways. First, students from lower income families have fewer degrees of freedom in the selection of a college. Data presented in Chapter 1 of this report clearly indicate that our five sample schools differ significantly in the overall SES composition of their graduating seniors. Second, data from other research dealing with college students support the proposition that students of less affluent backgrounds do not do as well as more affluent students on tests designed to assess college student applicants. Third, students of lower SES backgrounds tend to be less sophisticated about the college process and less knowledgeable about potential career alternatives. This combination of factors, we believe, helps explain why graduating seniors of lower SES backgrounds are more likely to be concentrated in certain majors than in others. (See Table 5.2)

Among the males, lower SES respondents are most heavily enrolled in Education. They show the lowest proportion of enrollees in the following majors: Business Administration, Physical Sciences, Biological Sciences, Psychology, and Others. The lower SES males are less likely than more affluent students to be enrolled in those majors for which post-college graduate training is the expected norm.

The picture for females is similar to that of the males. The important difference is that women in general confine themselves to a limited number of majors. A little more than half of all the women major in Education. As indicated earlier there are few women majoring in Business Administration, Engineering, and Agriculture, When we look at SES we find that in most cases it is women of the very highest SES group who are enrolled in fields other than Education. Women of the very high SES group are more likely than all other women to major in the Biological Sciences, Psychology, Business Administration, Humanities, and Other. Again, similar to males of higher SES backgrounds, the more affluent women are more heavily represented in those majors where graduate school training is the expected norm.

Earlier we noted that a student's SES background is operative as a factor in the selection of a college. Financial constraints place restrictions upon the range of colleges to which a student might apply. Simply stated, the greater the financial restrictions, the more limited the college choice alternatives. Another aspect of the economic dimension is that SES is also correlated with college entrance test scores. Students of lower SES backgrounds generally do less well on such tests than do applicants of higher SES backgrounds. While some colleges and universities have altered admissions

Table 5.2

Sex, SES, and Field of Study

SES	Business Administration		Engineering		Physical Sciences		Education		Health Professions		Biological Science	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Very High	16	3	11	0	10	4	8	37	1	4	7	8
Mid High	11	0	15	1	8	4	13	53	1	2	8	3
Mid Low	10	0	14	0	7	4	26	56	1	4	7	4
Very Low	7	1	13	0	7	4	25	60	0	5	4	4
TOTAL %	12	2	13	0	8	4	17	52	1	4	6	5

	Agriculture		Psychology		Social Sciences		Humanities		Others		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Very High	0	0	8	13	19	7	12	16	8	8	(285)	(247)
Mid High	0	0	5	9	21	8	10	15	8	4	(179)	(165)
Mid Low	1	0	4	7	19	11	8	10	3	4	(203)	(212)
Very Low	3	0	4	6	24	7	10	9	3	4	(235)	(314)
TOTAL %	1	0	5	8	21	8	10	12	6	5	(902)	(938)

policies so that test scores are not the decisive factor, most institutions continue to place great saliency upon test outcomes. The end result is that even prior to the time when the lower income student has begun his college education and long before he has had an opportunity to exhibit his scholarly and intellectual ability, he is locked into a system which limits career choice and career mobility.

Again, as noted earlier, our sample schools differ significantly in the proportion of low SES graduating seniors found in each school. The most dramatic differences are found between the students at the two teacher-training oriented colleges and the students at the private, liberal arts college. A major difference between the two teacher training colleges and the three other institutions is found in the range of academic majors offered. The two teacher training colleges offer far fewer career alternative programs than do the other institutions. Variations in the range of academic offerings means that some students (those in the teacher-training colleges, females, and those of the lower SES groups) have fewer alternatives for career choice upon entrance into college and fewer alternatives for career direction change once they have become part of the college socialization process. Obviously, the fewer academic major alternatives available, the less likely the student is to be exposed to different career alternatives. Even if the student is made aware of alternatives, seeks to change his major, and has the ability to succeed in some other major, the fact that the academic field of study he prefers is not offered on his campus results in his either staying with what he has or transferring to some other school.

Based upon other data collected in this research we know that many students in each of the five sample schools believe that they have had to make a career choice earlier than they would have preferred. It is also apparent that many students would have changed their academic majors at some point in their college experience had the costs, in terms of both time and money, not been so great. Although the problems associated with shifting one's academic major may be trying for many students, it would seem to be most difficult for students with limited financial resources, particularly low income students enrolled in colleges with limited academic major offerings. The fact that lower income students are more likely to be in fields not highly associated with post-college professional training should not lead to the conclusion that it is a reflection of personal preference. The large number of low income students enrolled in Education does not necessarily mean that these students more so than others have a built-in commitment to teaching. Rather, we are suggesting that their heavier enrollment in Education and their lower enrollment in graduate school oriented fields is more a product of their SES background than a product of personal preferences or desires. The student of lower socioeconomic status is compelled to complete his academic requirements and move to the job market.

Table 5.3 provides a listing of the expressed career expectations of males and females at each of the five sample schools. With the exception of males at Reeves the percentages are based upon a minimum of at least two respondents selecting a particular career. Because of the small size of the male Reeves sample, the percentages shown are based upon selection of a career by one or more students. The "Other" category at the bottom of both tables is made up of the career expectations which either did not meet the criteria noted above or of career expectations which we were unable to place within a specific career setting. For example: "I plan on working in

Table 5.3

Sex, School, and Career Expectations

Career Type	State U.		Fletcher		Latham		Metro		Reeves	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %
Teacher (Elem., Sec., Spec.)	11	44	46	77	6	32	9	34	54	80
Librarian	-	-	1	4	-	6	-	2	-	2
Social Worker	3	10	3	4	1	6	4	8	-	4
Psychologist	4	6	2	2	3	6	2	8	-	3
Nurse	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-
Univ. Faculty	3	3	9	3	7	6	7	6	8	4
Med. Technican	-	3	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Pharmacist	-	-	-	-	-	3	4	-	2	-
Public Health	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Physican	5	-	-	-	4	1	5	2	2	-
Dentist	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	-	-
Chem. Engineer	2	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-
Chemist	1	-	-	-	1	1	2	-	2	-
Engineer	15	-	-	-	11	-	10	-	-	-
Architect	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Economist	-	2	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-
Geologist	2	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Researcher	-	3	-	-	2	7	3	2	4	-
Lawyer	7	1	5	-	12	1	15	2	2	-
Comissioned Officer	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Government Work	2	3	4	-	1	2	1	-	4	-
Police-related	3	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Forester	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Business (Management)	12	3	6	-	11	2	9	3	5	-
Sm. Business Proprietor	-	1	-	-	4	-	-	-	2	-
Sales	2	-	2	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Artist	1	-	2	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
Writer	2	1	-	-	2	1	1	2	-	-

Table 5.3 (cont'd)

Career Type	State U.		Fletcher		Latham		Metro		Reeves	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Musician	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
Others	8	11	17	9	14	22	18	17	15	7
I don't know	2	3	2	-	11	7	5	4	-	-
TOTAL N	(189)	(197)	(135)	(248)	(272)	(157)	(182)	(207)	(57)	(98)
TOTAL NUMBER OF CAREER TYPES	19	15	12	7	20	15	16	12	11	6

theatre;" "Mass Media;" "Community Work;" "International Relations;" and so forth.

The distributions presented are not surprising when we recall that females are most heavily located in a limited number of fields (primarily Education), and that two of the five schools included in this research are predominately teacher-training institutions. The distribution does, however, point out how SES acts as a potential barrier to wider career selection and career mobility. We see from both tables that males and females from the two teacher-training schools (again these are the two schools with the largest proportion of lower SES seniors) have stated the fewest number of career settings. The two schools with the highest proportion of more affluent students show the greatest range in career settings. The fifth school which falls between the two higher and two lower SES groups falls in the middle of the career slope.

The career range pattern holds for both males and females. The difference is that regardless of the number of career types, in each school women are more restricted in career range expectations. The data would also suggest that students of lower SES backgrounds who are enrolled in schools with a variety of academic majors will be more likely to anticipate a broader range of career choices than do students of low SES background who are enrolled in colleges with limited academic offerings. Simply stated, occupational mobility is enhanced when students are provided with career opportunities and career alternatives.

An examination in patterns of career plan changes and career plan stability indicates that three variables are of prime importance:

1) Sex: Generally women more so than the men in our sample say that they have not modified their career plans between the time they entered college and the time they selected their academic major. Men more so then women respondents report that they had no specific career plans at the time they entered college. The available data would lead us to conclude that the greater career stability expressed by women can be explained as follows:

a) Women perceive a narrower range of career alternatives at the time they enter college. As our data and the research of others indicated women who attend college tend to enroll most heavily in Education, Social Work, Nursing, and other fields with heavy client-helping orientations.

b) Generally the women in our sample are of somewhat lower SES backgrounds than males regardless of which of the five sample schools they attend. SES as we have already shown does contribute to the restricting of career choices.

c) Women place less emphasis upon career choice since many expect long periods of time when they will not be in the labor market. Hence, the tendency is to select careers which will allow the individual to move in and out of the labor market with a minimum of difficulty. This combination of factors (a societal culture which does little to motivate women to enter predominately male-dominated fields, the lack of financial resources, and a view of one's career as playing a less-than-major role in one's life) all contribute to a limitation both in careers selected and in the pursuit of education beyond the baccalaureate level.

2) SES: Generally, the lower the SES background of the student, the less the likelihood of a report of career expectation change regardless of sex or field of study. Again, changes in career expectations and academic fields of study can be costly. They are expensive to the student both in terms of time lost and in the expenses which are encountered if the newly selected field demands post-college professional training.

3) Field of Study: Field of study is also associated with variations in career expectation change and stability. Career change occurs less in those fields which are highly structured, single career oriented, and in which the baccalaureate degree is sufficient license for employment. The greatest career stability in this sample occurs among students majoring in Education and Engineering. In addition to being highly structured and single career oriented, both Education and Engineering are fields which offer employment opportunities (given the availability of jobs) for individuals with baccalaureate degrees. The lower incidence of career expectation change among students in these fields is also enhanced by their generally lower SES status. Again, students of lower SES backgrounds have more limited opportunities when enrolling in college, in selecting a major, and in changing their field of concentration.

Table 5.4 deals with the relationships between respondent sex, major field of study, and changes in career plans. The question asked: "Are your post graduation occupation plans the same now as they were when you first selected your college major?" The percentages shown in Table 5.4 combine both of the following responses: "Yes, exactly the same," and "Yes, somewhat the same." The least amount of reported career plan change is found among the eight males enrolled in Agriculture followed by men majoring in the Health Professions, Education, and Engineering. The highest incidence of change occurs among males in the Humanities and Psychology. For females career stability is highest for majors in the Health Professions (nurses, medical technicians, and nutritionists for the most part), Education majors, and the Physical Sciences. Most change has occurred among those women majoring in Psychology, Humanities, Social Sciences, Biological Sciences, and Other. For both sexes, career plan change appears to be most likely to occur among students enrolled in the less structured, more eclectic career oriented fields, and in fields with a post-college education expectation.

The overall pattern of career plan change would suggest that students with less specific career orientations tend to gravitate toward those fields which are themselves characterized by less structure and more flexible career alternatives. Those who for one reason or another enroll in career-specific fields find a setting which enhances earlier career commitment and minimized opportunities for career flexibility. Those who seem more uncertain or eclectic in their career plans tend to enroll in majors that generate little in the way of career specificity pressure. In other words, the pattern seems to be one in which students search out fields which will provide them with the climate, training, experience, and guidance they need in order to put to practice the occupational and career values they believe they hold. Obviously some students have less freedom of choice than others and some students have achieved greater career crystalization than others at the time they select their major field of study.

Table 5.4

Sex, Field of Study, and % Indicating Career Plans Have Not Changed

Field of Study	Males		Females	
	%	N	%	N
Business Administration	51	(104)	53	(15)
Engineering	61	(117)	50	(2)
Education	65	(158)	74	(482)
Physical Sciences	46	(72)	55	(36)
Biological Sciences	54	(57)	4	(45)
Health Professions	66	(9)	85	(39)
Agriculture	87	(8)	-	(1)
Psychology	37	(44)	43	(79)
Social Sciences	42	(184)	49	(77)
Humanities	37	(89)	45	(114)
Others	49	(53)	49	(47)
TOTAL %	48	(900)	52	(937)

What is difficult to determine is the degree to which students' work and career values and orientations are a reflection of pre-major or pre-college preferences, and to what extent they are the result of exposure to experiences unique to the various fields of study. No doubt both factors are at play. The actual process of how the fit occurs, however, cannot be determined by this research. Our findings and interpretations regarding career change and the impact of the college experience upon specific career choice are not unlike those proposed by Davis in his 1961 N.O.R.C. Study of graduating seniors Davis concludes: "Viewed from a very abstract point of view, the changes during the four years of college hardly suggest that the college experience is decisive for occupational choice; a) by and large the students came out oriented to the jobs they chose as freshman, b) by and large the changes which do occur appear to be a continuation of trends which began before entry at college." (page 148 - Great Aspirations Vol. I)

With very few exceptions all college going students - certainly the vast majority of our seniors - enter college with expectations of professional, white-collar, and managerial career outcomes. Few indeed are inclined toward blue-collar or service occupations. Additionally, from our personal interviews with students we find that changes in career plans which do occur are not of a particulary dramatic nature. What a change in career plans most often represents is the selection of an alternative career pretty much within the same overall structure (e.g. a shift from elementary to secondary education; a shift from experimental to clinical psychology; a shift from nursing to medical technician; a shift from electrical to structural engineering). The more dramatic shifts (e.g. from Agriculture to the Humanities or from Elementary Education to Engineering) appear to be rare indeed. Our data certainly suggest, as will be noted in the discussion dealing with the college experience, that most students receive little in the way of career guidance from faculty, academic advisors, or course work. In fact the major shortcoming that many students see in their college experience is a failure on the part of faculty and courses to provide the student with career-guidance and specific career skills. It would appear that most faculty in most colleges do not see that providing vocational training, guidance and counseling, and career information is a major part of their academic role. Hence we would conclude that while the college experience might have significant impact upon career choice and career change, it is unlikely to do so given the non-career orientation of our colleges and the initial career range expectations held by students at the time they enter college.

Our data, and data provided by other career choice researchers, indicate that similar personality characteristics and work attitudes are found among individuals in the same fields or careers. For example, most research has shown that women express more altruistic work attitudes than do men. Men on the other hand place a greater emphasis upon the more intrinsic dimensions of work. Individuals in Elementary and Secondary Education are presented as being more "people-oriented" then are individuals in the fields of Chemistry, Biology, and Physics.

Although these differences are observable, it is still difficult to determine the processes which generate these observed variations. Few researchers seem comfortable in the making of a precise statement as to which is the independent and which is the dependent variable. Do people of a particular value orientation gravitate toward fields and careers which encourage or enhance values already held, or does exposure to the field or involvement with a career generate a prevailing common set of values and attitudes unique to that field or career?

Our data unfortunately do not allow for the making of any definitive contributions which might shed light on the question. An analysis of our data including personal interviews leads to the conclusion that, not unlike the issue of the influence of the college experience upon career plan change, it is some of both. That is, there is interplay between student values and expectations, and the orientation of the particular field to which the student is moving. Again it is important to point out that the specific career selected does not necessarily represent a first choice. Nor does the career or job actually taken represent a fulfillment of the student expectations. Each student operates with certain degrees of freedom in the matter of career choice fulfillment. Constraints may be imposed by financial status, academic achievement, marital plans, awareness of career alternatives, perceptions of the job market, and the actual status of the job market at the time the student must make career-related decisions. Personal values, concepts of self, and work-related attitudes also contribute to career choice flexibility.

We do know that sex and SES cut down the range of career alternatives which students see as being available to them. We also know that sex and SES are associated, to some degree, with variations in personal values and work-attitude orientation. The difficulties arise in attempting to identify those career and life-style related areas in which background characteristics appear to exert more impact than attitudinal variables. The second difficulty arises in attempting to explain observed differences in values and attitudes found among students of similar sex and SES background. The third difficulty is in attempting to isolate the experiences in the socialization process which lead to the internalization of personal values and work-life style attitudes. As a result the best we can do is to show that certain attitudes and values seem to be more or less prevalent among males or females; among more or less affluent students; among students enrolled in one field of study as compared to those students enrolled in some other major field of study.

Table 5.5 deals with the relationship between sex, field of study, and rankings on a number of self-selected personality characteristics (factors). A more detailed discussion of the statistical procedures utilized in the development of this ranking instrument is provided in the Methodological section of this report (Chapter 1). For immediate purposes it is helpful to point out that the numbers shown in the various cells are based upon a seven point scale ranging from minus three (-3) to plus three (+3). Minus three (-3) representing the most negative score (based upon the mean scores of all respondents of a similar sex) and plus three (+3) the most positive score (based upon the mean score of all respondents of a similar sex). Each personality factor is labeled according to the three variables which are its principle components. A positive score suggests that the group in question takes on the attributes used in labeling that particular factor. A negative score, on the other hand, suggests just the opposite. The magnitude of the score is a measure of the degree to which the group being analyzed actually takes on or does not take on the attributes used for the factor label.

Table 5.5

Sex, Field of Study, and Personality Characteristics

Field of Study	Practical Logical Cautious		Hostile Alienating Unhappy		Ambitious Aggressive A Leader		Analytical Insightful Intellectual		Confident Secure Happy		Easy-going Fun-loving Athletic		Moral Religious Honest		Beautiful Loving Thoughtful	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Business Administration	1	0	0	0	0	0	-2	-2	0	0	2	1	-1	0	0	0
Engineering	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	-2	0
Physical Sciences	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	-2	-2
Education	0	1	0	-2	1	0	0	-2	1	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
Health Professions	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Biological Sciences	2	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	-1
Agriculture	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Psychology	-2	-1	0	0	0	-2	0	2	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0
Social Sciences	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0
Humanities	-2	-2	1	1	-2	-2	2	1	-1	-1	-1	0	0	-1	1	-1
Others	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0

In summary form we find the following scores for respondents in each major field of study:

Agriculture

Males (N=8) - No observable tendency to score either positively or negatively in any of the personality-related factors.

Females (N=1) - Sample size prohibits analysis.

Biological Sciences

Males (N=57) - Somewhat positive on "practical, logical, cautious;" inclined toward "moral, very religious, honest;" and slightly negative on "hostile, alienated, unhappy."

Females (N=44) - Little variation in this group with the exception of scoring somewhat negatively on the factor "beautiful, loving, thoughtful."

Business Administration

Males (N=98) - Somewhat positive on "easy going, fun loving, athletic;" slightly positive on "practical, logical, cautious." Somewhat negative on "analytical, insightful, intellectual;" and slightly negative on "moral, very religious, honest."

Females (N=15) - Slightly positive scoring on "easy going, fun loving, athletic;" and somewhat negative on "analytical, insightful, intellectual."

Education

Males (N=145) - Slightly positive on "ambitious, aggressive, a leader;" "secure, confident, happy;" and "moral, very religious, honest."

Females (N=462) - Somewhat positive on "moral, very religious, and honest;" and slightly positive on "practical, logical, cautious." Somewhat negative on the factors "hostile, alienated, unhappy" and "analytical, insightful, intellectual."

Engineering

Males (N=114) - Scored positively on the factors "practical, logical, cautious." A tendency to score positively on "easy going, fun loving, athletic." Somewhat negative on "beautiful, loving, thoughtful."

Females (N=2) - Sample size prohibits analysis.

Health Professions

Males (N=8) - Little variation for this group with the exception of a slightly positive score on the factor "moral, very religious, honest."

Females (N=38) - None or little variation from the mean for all females.

Humanities

Males (N=83) - Somewhat positive for "analytical, insightful, intellectual." Slightly positive for "hostile, alienated, unhappy" and "beautiful, loving, thoughtful." Slightly negative on "secure, confident, unhappy" and "easy going, fun loving, athletic." Significantly negative on being "practical logical, cautious" and "ambitious, aggressive, a leader."

Females (N=83) - A tendency to score positive on the factors "hostile, alienated, unhappy" and "analytical, insightful, intellectual." Slightly negative on "secure, confident, happy;" "moral, very religious, honest;" and "beautiful, loving, thoughtful." Somewhat negative on "practical, logical, cautious" and "ambitious, aggressive, a leader."

Other

Males (N=51) - Little variation in this group with one exception: a tendency to score negatively on "ambitious, aggressive, a leader."

Females (N=47) - Little variation in this group, again with one exception: a tendency to be below the mean on "moral, very religious, honest."

Physical Sciences

Males (N=71) - Somewhat positive on "practical, logical, cautious." Slightly positive on "moral, very religious, honest." Somewhat negative on "beautiful, loving, thoughtful."

Females (N=36) - Similar to males except that females in the Physical Sciences do not score negatively on the factor "moral, very religious, honest."

Psychology

Males (N=47) - Somewhat negative on "practical, logical, cautious;" and slightly negative on "moral, very religious, honest."

Females (N=76) - Somewhat positive on "analytical, insightful, intellectual." Somewhat negative on "ambitious, aggressive, a leader." Slightly negative on "practical, logical, continuous."

Social Sciences

Males (N=173) - Scores slightly positive on the factors "practical, logical, cautious" and "ambitious, aggressive, a leader." Slightly negative on "moral, very religious, honest."

Females (N=76) - Somewhat positive on "analytical, insightful, intellectual." Slightly positive on "ambitious, aggressive, a leader."

Table 5.6 indicates that there are some differences between males and females in similar fields as well as differences between students in different fields. The most striking contrasts, however, are found between those in the Humanities and those majoring in all other fields.

Looking at each personality characteristic set separately we obtain the following picture:

Practical, Logical, Cautious

Highest positive scores for males majoring in Engineering and the Biological Sciences, and for males and females in the Physical Sciences. Highest negative scores for males in Psychology, and for males and females in the Humanities.

Hostile, Alienated, Unhappy

Highest positive scores for males and females in the Humanities. Highest negative score for females majoring in Education.

Ambitious, Aggressive, a Leader

Highest positive scores for males in Education, and males and females in the Social Sciences. Highest negative scores for males and females in the Humanities, and for females in Psychology.

Analytical, Insightful, Intellectual

Highest positive scores for males in the Humanities, and for females in Psychology and the Social Sciences. Highest negative score for males and females in Business Administration, and for females in Education.

Table 5.6

Sex, Field of Study, and Work Attitude Orientation

Field of Study	Success Oriented Thru Hard Work		Not Way of Life-Just A Way to Earn Money		Worried About Job Being Boring Uncreative; No Useful Guidance		Private Life More Important Unmaterialistic; Anti-business		Worried About Job Setting		I Like Work, Working Will Make Me A Better Person		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Business Administration	1	0	3	0	0	0	-3	-2	0	0	1	0	(98)	(15)
Engineering	1	0	3	0	-1	0	-1	0	0	0	1	0	(114)	(2)
Physical Science	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	(71)	(36)
Education	1	3	0	0	-2	-3	0	0	0	-2	1	0	(145)	(462)
Health Professions	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	(8)	(38)
Biological Science	2	0	-2	-1	0	2	1	0	2	1	0	0	(57)	(44)
Agriculture	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	(8)	(1)
Psychology	0	-1	-1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	(47)	(76)
Social Sciences	-2	-2	0	0	0	2	0	0	-1	0	0	0	(173)	(76)
Humanities	-3	-3	-2	0	2	3	0	1	2	2	-1	-1	(83)	(112)
Other	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	-1	-1	(51)	(47)

Secure, Confident, Happy

Highest positive score for males in Education. Highest negative scores for both males and females in the Humanities.

Easy Going, Fun Loving, Athletic

Highest positive score for males in Business Administration and highest negative score for males in the Humanities.

Moral, Very Religious, Honest

Highest positive score for females in Education. Highest negative scores for males in Psychology, Business Administration, and the Social Sciences, and for females in the Humanities and Others.

Beautiful, Loving, Thoughtful

Highest positive score for males in the Humanities. Highest negative score for males in Engineering, and for males and females in the Physical Sciences.

Having examined certain relationships between the respondents' fields of study and personality characteristics, we turn now to a discussion of the relationship between sex, field of study, and work-value orientations.

Table 5.6 is similar to Table 5.5 with the exception that the dependent variables are now a set of work-related values and attitudes. The scoring system used is the same as that utilized in our discussion of personality characteristics. Again minus three (-3) is the most negative score and plus three (+3) is the most positive score. It will also be noted that group variations were greater in the case of work values than was the case with the personality characteristics; hence, there is a greater number of both -3 and +3 scores. The differences in variation would also suggest that field of study is more significantly associated with work-related attitudes than with personality characteristics. In other words, it would appear that field of study is a better predictor of work attitudes than it is of personality characteristics.

Agriculture

Males (N=8) - Little variation in all of the work attitude categories, with the exception of high positive scoring on the "I like work - working will make me a better person" factor.

Females (N=1) - Sample size prohibits analysis.

Biological Sciences

Males (N=57) - Somewhat positive on "success oriented through hard work;" and "worry about job setting." Slightly positive on "private life more important than a job, unmaterialistic, anti-business." Somewhat negative on "job is not a way of life."

Females (N=44) - Score somewhat positive on the factor showing concern over "job being boring and uncreative; no useful guidance." An inclination toward showing "worry about job setting." Slightly negative with regard to "job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money."

Business Administration

Males (N=98) - Very high positive score suggests a belief that "job is not a way of life - but a way to earn money." Tendency to score positive on "success oriented through work" and "I like work - work will make me a better person." Very high negative score suggests that this group rejects the positions "private life is more important than a job, unmaterialistic, and anti-business."

Females (N=15) - Little variation with one exception: somewhat negative on "private life more important than a job, unmaterialistic, and anti-business."

Education

Males (N=145) - Slightly positive on "success oriented through hard work" and "I like to work - working will make me a better person." Somewhat negative on being concerned about "job being boring, and uncreative; no useful career guidance."

Females (N=462) - Score very positively on "success oriented through work." Very negative on "worried about job being boring, or uncreative; no useful career guidance," and "worried about job setting."

Engineering

Males (N=114) - Significantly positive score on "job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money." Slightly positive on "I like work - working will make me a better person." Slightly negative on "worried about job being boring and uncreative; no useful career guidance;" and "private life more important than a job, unmaterialistic, anti-business."

Females (N=2) - Sample size prohibits analysis.

Health Professions

Males (N=8) - Score slightly positive on "success oriented through hard work."

Females (N=38) - Only slight variation for this group with respect to the work attitude factors.

Humanities

Males (N=83) - Somewhat positive on "worried about job being boring, uncreative; no useful career guidance" and "worried about job setting." Negative scoring for "success oriented through hard work." Somewhat negative on "job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money." Slightly negative on the factor "I like work - working will make me a better person."

Females (N=112) - Very high positive score indicates concern over "job being boring, and uncreative; no useful career guidance." Somewhat positive on "worry about job setting." Slightly positive on "private life is more important than a job, unmaterialistic, anti-business." Considerably negative for the factor "success oriented through hard work." Slightly negative on "I like work - working will make me a better person."

Other

Males (N=51) - Generally showing little variation with two exceptions: This group tends to score negatively on the factors "job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money" and "I like work - working will make me a better person."

Females (N=47) - Similar to males; variations are found in only two factors where the tendency is again to score negatively on "private life is more important than a job, unmaterialistic, anti-business" and "I like work - working will make me a better person."

Physical Sciences

Males (N=71) - Little variation in this group with two exceptions: slightly positive on "success oriented through hard work" and slightly negative "worried about the job setting."

Females (N=36) - Little variation for this group on any of the work attitude factors.

Psychology

Males (N=47) - Little variation on this group with the exception of a tendency to score negatively on "job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money."

Females (N=76) - Somewhat positive for the factor "private life is more important than a job, unmaterialistic, antibusiness." A tendency to score negatively on "success oriented through hard work."

Social Sciences

Males (N=173) - Somewhat positive on "success oriented through hard work." Slightly negative on "worried about job setting."

Females (N=76) - Somewhat positive on concern over "job being boring, and uncreative, no useful guidance." Somewhat negative on "success oriented through hard work."

Once again we find differences, more pronounced than those of personality factors, between males and females in similar fields, and between students in different fields. In addition, as was the case with personality factors, students in the Humanities appear more unlike those in all other fields. The differences which occur reflect not only the influence of the field of study, but also the impact of SES and sex. As we have pointed out, both SES and sex are associated with variations in career choice and field of study.

Along sex lines we find that males more than females generally place greater importance upon "success through hard work;" feel that a "job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money;" and endorse the proposition "I like work - working will make me a better person." Females are more inclined than males to express concern over the possibilities that their job will be boring and uncreative. They are also more likely than males to express the feeling that their private life is more important than a job, and that they are nonmaterialistic and anti-business.

In summary we obtain the following contrasts for males and females, fields of study, and each of the work value orientations:

I. Success Oriented Through Hard Work
Most positively related to females in Education. It should be kept in mind that a large proportion of females in Education are from lower SES backgrounds, including most of the Black females in our sample, as well as a significant number of females from working class, German-Protestant backgrounds. Most negative for males and females in the Humanities.

II. Job Is Not a Way of Life - Just a Way to Earn Money
Most positive for males in Business Administration and Engineering. Most negative for males in the Biological Sciences and Humanities.

III. Worried About Job Being Boring, and Uncreative; No Useful Guidance
Most positive for females in the Humanities. Almost sixty percent (60%) of the females in the Humanities are from the two highest SES groups. As indicated earlier it is primarily among women from the highest SES groups that we find the strongest orientation toward more non-traditional female roles and career preferences.

IV. Private Life More Important Than a Job; Unmaterialistic; Anti-business
Most positive for females in Psychology. Also important to women in the Humanities. More than two-thirds of the females in Psychology are from the two highest SES groups. Lowest for males in Business Administration.

V. Worried About Job Setting
Most positive for males in the Biological Sciences, and males and females in the Humanities. Most negative for males in the Physical and Social Sciences.

VI. I Like Work - Working Will Make Me a Better Person
Most positive for males in Agriculture. Most negative for both males and females in the Humanities and Others.

In Table 5.7 we are able to note the interaction in rankings between the various work-value orientation factors and personality characteristic factors for both males and females.

In all there are forty-eight different work-value orientation factor and personality characteristic factor combinations in which comparisons can be made between males and females. In only three of the forty-eight sets do we find a difference between males and females which exceeds a score of one. Two of these sex response discrepancies occur with the personality factor "hostile, alienated, unhappy." Individuals of this group who are males score two points more positive than their female counterparts in reporting that "a job is not a way of life, just a way to make money." These males in the "hostile, alienated, unhappy" factor also score two points more positive than their female counterparts in indicating that they are "worried about the job setting." The third discrepancy between sexes occurs in the factor combination of "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" and "I like to work - working will make me a better person." Males again score two points more positive than the females.

In summary, the following combinations of work-value orientation factors and personality characteristics factors appear to be significantly interrelated with one another:

1) The combination of "success oriented through hard work" and "practical, logical, cautious" results in high positive scores for both males and females. "Success oriented through hard work" is also positively scored with "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" (+3 for males and +2 for females); "moral, religious, honest" (+2 for males and +3 for females); and "easy-going, fun-loving, athletic" for males (+2).

2) "A job is not a way of life, just a way to earn money" combines with personality factors most frequently in a negative direction. Both "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" and "analytical, insightful, intellectual" produce negative scores (-2) for both sexes in combination with this work-value orientation. The only personality factor which

Table 5.7

Sex, Personality Characteristics, and Work-Value Orientations

Work Attitude	Practical Logical Cautious		Hostile Alienating Unhappy		Ambitious Aggressive A Leader		Analytical Insightful Intellectual		Confident Secure Happy		Easy-going Fun-loving Athletic		Moral Religious Honest		Beautiful Loving Thoughtful	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Success oriented through hard work	3	3	0	0	3	2	-1	-1	1	1	2	1	2	3	0	0
Job is not a way of life-just a way to earn money	0	0	2	0	-2	-2	-2	-2	0	0	1	1	-1	-1	0	0
Worried about job being boring, uncreative; no useful guidance	0	0	3	3	-1	-1	1	2	-3	-2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Private life more important than job, unmaterialistic; anti-business	0	0	0	-1	-2	-2	3	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
Worried about job setting	0	-1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I like work, working will make me a better person	1	1	-1	-1	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0

does combine with this work factor significantly in a positive direction is "hostile, alienated, unhappy" (+2 for males).

3) The work-value orientation factor "worried about job being boring and uncreative; no useful guidance" produces the widest range of scores when combined with the personality factors. That is, when this work factor is in combination with "hostile, alienated, unhappy" the resultant scores are in a high positive direction (+3 for both males and females). When in combination with "secure, confident, happy" the resultant scores are in a high negative direction (-3 for males and -2 for females). A relatively high positive score (+2) is also produced for the combination of this work-orientation factor and "analytical, insightful, intellectual" for females.

4) Similar to the work-orientation expressing concern over the job being boring, the factor "private life is more important than a job; unmaterialistic; anti-business" also produces a wide score range when combined with the various personality factors. For both males and females this work factor results in negative scores in combination with "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" (-2 for both sexes); and positive scores with "analytical, insightful, intellectual" (+3 for males and +2 for females).

5) The only combination of the work-orientation factor "worried about the job setting" and the various personality factors which resulted in a score of high magnitude was that of "hostile, alienated, unhappy" for the males (+2).

6) "I like work - working will make me a better person" results in high positive scores in combination with "ambitious, aggressive, a leader" (+3 for males) and "moral, religious, honest" (+2 for both males and females).

Having examined and discussed the interplay between field of study, personality characteristics, and work-attitude orientations we turn now to an analysis of the immediate post-college preferences and expectations of this sample of graduating seniors.

Table 5.8 illustrates the distribution of responses to the following question:

> "If you had free choice and enjoyed a complete absence of restraints (financial, family, etc.) what would you do for one year after college graduation?"

The second part of the question asked respondents to move beyond their preferences and to cite their actual post-college expectations for the coming year.

The percentages provided in Table 5.8 deal with the expressed preferences and expectations of both males and females. In addition the percentage discrepancies between preferences and expectations are noted. Several significant contrasts occur. Among the most obvious differences are those between preferences and expectations, and those between males and females.

Table 5.8

Sex, Post-College Preferences, and Post-College Expectations

	Preferences		Expectations	
	M %	F %	M %	F %
Travel	46	58	3	2
Graduate School	10	7	27	12
Graduate School and Part-Time Work	3	3	5	6
Vista, Peace Corps	4	5	1	-
Job in Field	8	10	37	61
Job Not in Field	1	1	10	10
Pursue Own Interests	14	7	2	1
Go Into Self-Business	3	1	1	-
Use Time to Further Knowledge	5	3	1	1
Other	1	2	7	3
I Don't Know	5	3	6	4
Total N	(898)	(941)	(898)	(945)

Given the absence of restraints, most college graduates would rather be doing something other than what they actually expect to be doing during the first post-college year. The majority express a preference for travel and an opportunity to get away from it all - "if even for only a few days." In our personal interviews with students a need for "R and R" was expressed again and again. The desire for a period of freedom from obligations prior to reentry into a structured and demanding way of life was a prevalent theme.

> A male in Engineering expressed the sentiment this way: "Just to get away for awhile - that's the main thing. My head is so fuzzy and my body is exhausted. I don't want to think about the future--at least not for a while. I know I will need to find work and get started. I just want some time to run free--some time where I don't have to be anywhere I don't feel like being."
>
> A female in Education: "Free at last - God O' Mighty free at last. That's how I feel. Not that college was a total disaster - much of it was exciting and fun. But now I would really like to have the opportunity to get away and try to put things into perspective. I know I will get a job teaching and I know I will enjoy that - but for now I really need to be free."
>
> A male in the Physical Sciences: "There has been continuous pressure and meeting the demands of others. I look forward to a period of time when I will be master of my own ship. A year is a little much - about six months is all I need. Six months of being out and away; six months of total indifference. Six months and then I will be better prepared for being recommitted to institutional life."

The fact that women place a greater emphasis on a preference for travel can probably be explained by two factors: First, women perceive themselves as having fewer post-college alternatives; second, women are almost twice as likely as men to anticipate entering the work market during the first post-graduation year. Both of these factors would, we believe, contribute to the stronger emphasis on travel as a preferred post-college activity.

Comparisons of preferences and expectations show a number of interesting contrasts. For both sexes travel and the pursuit of one's own interests decline sharply when preferences are matched with expectations, while work and graduate study show increases. As mentioned earlier, a greater proportion of males anticipate graduate school while women anticipate employment of one kind or another.

Although sex, field of study, and SES do contribute to variations in post-college preferences, the differences are not significant. The impact of sex, field of study, and SES becomes more apparent when we examine the actual post-college expectations of respondents.

Table 5.9 indicates the impact of sex and field of study upon the post-college expectations of our respondents.

Almost three-fourths (71%) of the women expect to be employed (61% in a field-related job; 10% in a non-field related job). Less than one-half (48%) of the males anticipate such a situation, with thirty-seven percent (37%)

Table 5.9

Sex, Field of Study, and Actual Post-Graduation Plans

Field of Study	Travel		Graduate School		Grad School & Part-time Work		VISTA, Peace Corps		Job in Field		Job Not In Field	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %
Agriculture	-	-	14	-	-	-	-	-	71	100	14	-
Biological Science	-	4	56	26	5	9	-	-	14	46	14	9
Business Administration	3	-	14	-	3	13	1	-	48	67	13	-
Education	2	1	14	6	4	4	2	-	57	76	9	5
Engineering	6	-	17	-	3	-	-	-	56	100	5	-
Health Professions	-	-	11	8	11	3	-	3	67	80	-	3
Humanities	1	4	27	25	6	6	2	2	17	26	19	22
Physical Sciences	3	-	38	25	7	6	1	-	30	50	7	11
Psychology	4	1	44	19	6	11	4	-	16	37	4	22
Social Sciences	3	4	33	18	7	8	3	-	25	49	11	12
Others	2	4	25	4	6	7	-	-	34	58	9	17
TOTAL %	3	2	27	12	5	6	2	-	37	61	11	10

Table 5.9 (cont'd)

Field of Study	Pursue Own Interests		Self-Business		Knowledge		Other		Know		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Agriculture	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	(7)	(1)
Biological Science	-	2	-	-	2	-	5	2	4	2	(57)	(46)
Business Administration	5	6	1	-	-	-	7	7	5	7	(104)	(15)
Education	3	-	-	-	1	-	3	3	5	3	(154)	(478)
Engineering	-	-	1	-	-	-	8	-	4	-	(116)	(2)
Health Professions	-	-	-	-	-	3	11	3	-	-	(9)	(39)
Humanities	2	2	2	-	6	2	3	4	15	7	(88)	(114)
Physical Sciences	1	-	-	-	1	-	6	-	6	8	(71)	(36)
Psychology	2	1	2	-	2	1	10	3	6	5	(49)	(79)
Social Sciences	3	-	1	-	-	1	7	4	7	4	(184)	(76)
Others	6	-	-	-	-	2	11	6	7	2	(53)	(47)
TOTAL %	2	1	1	-	1	1	6	3	6	4	(892)	(933)

expecting field-related employment and an additional eleven percent (11%) anticipating a non-field related job. Males are more than twice as likely as females to indicate graduate school plans (27% of the males compared with 12% of the females). Field of study differences show a similar pattern for men and women. Males in every field show higher rates of graduate school expectations, while females are consistently higher on employment expectations. Men and women Biological Science majors are highest in indicating immediate entrance into graduate training. Males are slightly more likely than females to indicate that they are not sure what they will be doing after graduation. Humanities majors, more so than students in other fields, appear to be least certain of immediate plans.

Once again, as with other findings reported in this chapter, the data dealing with expectations and preferences enables us to see the interplay between sex, SES, and field of study. Students of lower SES, because they are more likely to be in fields where the baccalaureate is usually considered to be a terminal degree, express the higher employment and lower graduate school expectations. Because of heavier concentration in the baccalaureate terminal programs, and societal norms which have not historically encouraged female enrollment in professional and graduate programs, women have relatively high employment expectations and relatively low graduate school expectations.

The impact of sex and field of study can also be observed in an analysis of the salary expectations of our respondents. Each respondent was asked to cite their salary expectations for three different time periods: 1) Expected full-time annual salary for the first job when all formal education is completed; 2) expected full-time annual salary five years later; and 3) expected full-time annual salary ten years later.

Analysis of the salary projections for the three different periods shows significant differences by sex and field of study. Variations by socioeconomic status are not as substantial since the influence of SES tends to be washed away once the student has committed himself to a particular career and field of study. It should be remembered, however, that SES is an important variable in field of study and career selection.

The distributions of salary expectations for each of the three time periods and for both sexes are shown in Table 5.10. In each case the N's represent only those respondents who expect to be working during the designated time periods.

Within each time frame the expected salaries of males are greater than those anticipated by females. In the first time frame (first post-education annual salary), two thirds (67%) of the men anticipate salaries of at least $8,000 per year while such is the case for about a third of the women (34%). For the second time frame (five years later), almost three-fourths of the males (72%) are in the $12,000 a year or more categories while the proportion of women in the same groupings is approximately one-third (32%). Most of the women (60%) in this second time period anticipate salaries of $8,000-$11,999; this is the salary category in which the majority of men were located for first job salary expectations. By the third time period (ten years later), ninety-three percent (93%) of the males project salaries in excess of $12,000 per year. For women the percentage expecting annual salaries in excess of $12,000 is sixty-eight percent (68%). After ten years in the employment market seventy-one percent (71%) of the women are holding expectations similar

Table 5.10
Sex and Full-Time Salary Expectations

Expected Salary	Less Than $3,000		$3,000 To $4,999		$5,000 To $7,999		$8,000 To $11,999		$12,000 To $14,999		$15,000 To $19,999		$20,000 To $24,999		$25,000 Or More		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
First Job	2	1	2	3	29	62	51	31	11	2	2	1	1	-	2	-	(892)	(941)
Five Years Later	-	-	-	1	2	7	26	60	39	25	20	5	7	1	6	1	(898)	(902)
Ten Years Later	1	-	-	-	1	2	5	30	22	39	30	20	20	7	21	2	(896)	(845)

to those held by sixty-seven percent (67%) of the men at the five year salary expectation stage. Although at the ten year salary period the majority of both men and women do anticipate earnings in excess of $12,000 there are marked differences in salary range. Seventy-one percent (71%) of the males are anticipating annual earnings in excess of $15,000 while such is the case for only twenty-nine percent (29%) of the women. There are of course a number of reasons why we would expect differences in the salary expectations of men and women. Women are more likely to be overrepresented in lower paying jobs; they are less likely to anticipate post-college graduate school training; they are more likely to anticipate extended periods of time when they will be out of the labor force; they place less saliency upon the importance of money; and women in our society have come to expect lower salaries than men even though they might possess qualification equal or even superior to men.

It is clear from our data that even when we control for expected post-college education and intention of continued employment, women consistently hold lower salary expectations. Attempting to control for specific careers is prohibitive since the careers listed are quite numerous and it is difficult to determine the precise job our respondents expect to hold within a particular career category.

We are however able to control for field of study. The tables which follow provide information about the dual impact of sex and field of study upon salary expectations. Once again we will be looking at post-formal education, full-time annual salary expectations for those who say they are planning to be in the labor force during the three designated time periods. For each of the three time periods the salary expectation distributions shown will be limited to four groupings: $7,999 or less; $8,000 to $14,999; $15,000 to $18,999; and $20,000 or more. In each case the N's shown for each sex and each field exclude those who do not expect to be in the labor force during the particular time period being discussed.

Table 5.11-a shows significant differences for field of study as well as sex. In each field women hold lower salary expectations than do men. The lowest expectations are held by men and women in the field of Education; fifty-nine percent (59%) of the males and seventy-six percent (76%) of the females anticipate first job annual salaries of less than $8,000. The highest first job salary expectations are held by males in the Biological Sciences (15% expect to earn more than $20,000 per year). The only group with no percentages indicated in the less than $7,999 category are males in the Health Professions.

Salary expectations for five years (Table 5.11-b) show similar sex differential patterns as those in Table 5.11-a. Regardless of field of study, women continue to lag behind the men. Males in the Biological Sciences are highest in the proportion of our respondents anticipating annual salaries in excess of $20,000 (31%). They are followed by males in the Health Professions (22% anticipating annual salaries of $20,000) and males in Engineering (15% with similar salary expectations). The lowest salary expectations are held by women in Education, Humanities, Psychology, and Others. The lowest salary expectations of the males are found among those who majored in Education, although the largest single proportion of males expecting salaries of less than $8,000 per year are males whose major was in the Humanities (12%). At the higher end of the salary range we find that eighteen percent (18%) of the females who major in Business Administration anticipate salaries in excess of $15,000 per year.

Table 5.11(A)

Sex, Field of Study, and First Job Salary Expectations

Field of Study	Less than $8,000		$8,000-$14,999		$15,000-$19,999		Over $20,000		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Agriculture	38	-	50	-	12	-	-	-	(8)	(1)
Biological Science	27	47	56	46	2	5	15	2	(55)	(44)
Business Administration	20	47	77	53	3	-	-	-	(104)	(15)
Education	59	76	39	24	2	-	-	-	(157)	(479)
Engineering	7	-	92	-	-	-	1	-	(116)	(2)
Health Professions	-	29	89	71	-	-	11	-	(8)	(38)
Humanities	48	69	49	31	2	-	1	-	(84)	(113)
Physical Science	19	34	76	64	4	2	1	-	(71)	(36)
Psychology	38	66	57	34	-	-	5	-	(47)	(77)
Social Science	40	55	57	44	3	1	-	-	(182)	(77)
Other	32	64	65	36	3	-	-	-	(52)	(47)

Table 5.11(B)

Sex, Field of Study, and Salary Expectations Five Years Later

Field of Study	Less than $8,000		$8,000-$14,999		$15,000-$19,000		Over $20,000		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Agriculture	-	-	75	-	13	-	12	-	(8)	(1)
Biological Science	2	3	48	82	19	5	31	10	(57)	(40)
Business Administration	-	-	61	82	27	9	12	9	(100)	(11)
Education	3	7	84	89	11	4	2	-	(157)	(468)
Engineering	-	-	59	-	26	-	15	-	(115)	(2)
Health Professions	-	-	22	94	56	6	22	-	(9)	(36)
Humanities	12	15	62	78	17	7	9	-	(84)	(106)
Physical Science	4	3	67	80	15	8	14	9	(70)	(36)
Psychology	6	11	69	80	15	8	10	1	(48)	(76)
Social Science	1	5	65	81	20	9	14	5	(178)	(73)
Other	8	16	58	79	23	5	11	-	(51)	(43)

Table 5.11(C)

Sex, Field of Study, and Salary Expectations Ten Years Later

Field of Study	Less than $8,000		$8,000-$14,999		$15,000-$19,999		Over $20,000		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Agriculture	-	-	38	-	25	-	37	-	(8)	(1)
Biological Science	-	-	20	60	20	21	60	19	(56)	(38)
Business Administration	-	-	8	27	31	27	61	46	(103)	(11)
Education	1	-	51	73	25	16	23	11	(156)	(445)
Engineering	-	-	16	-	38	-	46	-	(117)	(2)
Health Professions	-	-	-	70	33	25	67	5	(9)	(32)
Humanities	6	6	37	63	23	24	34	7	(87)	(102)
Physical Science	1	3	19	45	36	34	44	18	(73)	(29)
Psychology	2	5	26	64	43	24	29	7	(49)	(67)
Social Science	2	-	29	61	27	22	42	17	(182)	(67)
Other	4	5	21	59	45	28	30	8	(50)	(42)

Such is also the case with seventeen percent (17%) of the women in the Physical Sciences; fifteen percent (15%) of those in the Biological Sciences; and fourteen percent (14%) of those in the Social Sciences.

An examination of salary expectations for the period ten years following the completion of education (Table 5.11-c) shows the continuous impact of both sex and field of study. Once again for each field of study women hold the lowest salary expectations. Among the males a little more than one-half (51%) who majored in Education fall into the less than $15,000 per year category, as do almost three-fourths (73%) of the females in Education. The big earners (at least in terms of expectations) are males in the Health Professions (all anticipate annual salaries in excess of $15,000 per year with two-thirds indicating expected salaries in excess of $20,000 per year). Males in Business Administration are next highest followed by men who have majored in the Biological Sciences. The women who majored in Business Administration hold the highest long range salary expectations of all women in the sample; almost one-half (46%) fall into the $20,000 or more category. Males from the Humanities continue to be among those with the lowest salary expectations.

In addition to sex and field of study, we find some interesting relationships between expected salaries and work-attitude orientations. Table 5.12 illustrates inter-actions between expected first job salaries and work-attitude orientations.

Males with the lowest salary expectations are more likely than all others to score negatively on the factor "success oriented through hard work" and positively on "private life as more important than a job, unmaterialistic, anti-business." They are also more likely than others to score negatively on "I like work - working will make me a better person." Finally, they score most positively on being "worried about the job setting." Women anticipating lower salaries show a similar pattern but the differences are not as great as those found among the males. The less consistent relationship between expected salaries and work attitudes among women reflects, we believe, a difference between the sexes in the degree to which they feel they can control their work futures. The men are more likely then the women to believe that they can, if they so choose, earn higher salaries. For men, anticipation of lower salaries represents more a personal and voluntary choice; hence, men show a more consistent fit between their work attitude orientation and expected salaries. For women expectations of lower salaries are less a reflection of attitudes and preferences, and more a function of the realities of the economic and social system of our society.

In summary our analysis of salary expectations indicates the following:

1) Neither socioeconomic status nor race are significantly associated with variations in salary expectations.

2) Sex of the student is significantly associated with variations in expected earnings. Regardless of the field of study or time period, women hold lower salary expectations.

3) Field of study is significantly associated with variations in expected earnings. In most cases the higher the salary expectations of graduates in a particular field of study, the higher the proportion of students in that major expecting post-baccalaureate training.

Table 5.12

Sex, First Job Salary Expectations, and Work Attitude Orientation

Salary of First Job	Success Oriented Thru Hard Work		Not Way of Life-Just A Way to Earn Money		Worried About Job Being Boring Uncreative; No Useful Guidance		Private Life More Important Unmaterialistic; Anti-business		Worried About Job Setting		I Like Work, Working Will Make Me A Better Person		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Less than $3,000	-3	0	0	-1	-1	1	2	0	1	1	-2	-2	(15)	(12)
$3,000 - $5,000	-2	-1	-1	0	0	2	1	1	2	3	-2	-1	(19)	(27)
$5,000 - $8,000	0	2	2	0	0	-2	0	0	0	-1	-2	0	(250)	(568)
$8,000 - $12,000	2	-1	0	0	0	1	-1	0	-1	0	2	0	(439)	(281)
$12,000 - $15,000	1	0	-1	0	-1	0	-2	0	0	-2	0	0	(93)	(18)
$15,000 - $20,000	0	0	-1	-2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	(17)	(6)
$20,000 - $25,000	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	(7)	(1)
$25,000 - $30,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	(2)	(0)
Over $30,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	(5)	(0)
Won't Be Working	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	(9)	(4)

Still, there are exceptions. For example, Business Administration majors are relatively low on graduate school enrollment expectations, but comparatively high on expected salaries. Students majoring in the Physical and Biological Sciences anticipate higher salaries than those majoring in the Social Sciences.

4) Particularly for men, there appears to be a fairly consistent fit between work-attitude orientation and salary expectations. Men are more likely than women to perceive that they do have some personal control over future earnings. For men the expectation of lower salaries tends to reflect an over-all work-attitude orientation which minimized the importance of both earnings and the belief in traditional work ethic. For women the fit between salary expectations and work-attitude orientation is less consistent. Women, regardless of their work-attitude orientation, have lower salary expectations. However, their expectation of lower salaries is less a reflection of personal values and choice then is the case among many of the men who anticipate lower salaries.

Having dealt with salary expectations we now turn to an analysis of expected work settings and type of employer.

Table 5.13 illustrates the distribution of responses to the following question: "Which of the following will be your most likely employer when you begin full time work in your anticipated career field?" Not surprisingly the largest single source of employment is found to be elementary and secondary school systems (35%). The large number of Education majors in our sample explains why school systems are ranked highest as an expected setting for employment. Private companies are selected by approximately one-fourth (18%) of the sample (with the majority in this group anticipating employment in large organizations); hospitals and social welfare agency settings account for nine percent (9%) of the choices; college and university settings are anticipated by seven percent (7%); another sevent percent (7%) expect to be employed in state or local government positions. Five percent (5%) expect to be self-employed. In order to provide a more precise picture of what kinds of people expect to be working in what kinds of job settings we will provide two additional pieces of data. The first is a table (Table 5.14) showing the relationships between sex, field of study, and job setting. The second table (Table 5.15) shows the relationships between sex, work-attitude orientation, and job setting.

Not surprising, given the limited range of careers pursued and a tradition which has not enhanced employment mobility, the majority of females expect to work in either one of two settings: the elementary-secondary school system or a hospital-welfare agency. The largest group of females (53%) anticipate a school system setting and an additional twelve percent (12%) intend to work in a hospital-social welfare setting. Women are less likely than men to indicate that they intend to be self-employed (9% of the males and 1% of the females). Men are much more likely than women (a difference of 27%) to anticipate being employed in either a large or small private company. Men are a little higher in the selection of college and universities as potential employers (9% for males--6% for females). The sexes are similar in the selection of research organizations, federal, state, and local government settings.

Table 5.13

Anticipated Work Setting And Type of Employer

Setting - Employer	%
Elementary-Secondary School System	35
Private Company - More than 100 Employees	18
Hospital, Church, Clinic, Welfare - Social Service Agency	9
Private Company - Less than 100 Employees	8
College or University	7
State or Local Government	7
Self Employed	5
Federal Government	4
Research Organization	3
All Other	4
	100
	(1848)

Field of study differences show little in the way of unexpected distributions. Large and small private companies are highly selected by students who have majored in Business Administration and Engineering. Women majoring in Business Administration and the Physical Sciences tend to be high in the selection of large private companies.

College and university settings are selected most frequently by males in the Humanities and Psychology, and women in Psychology, Biological Sciences, and the Humanities.

The selection of research organizations or institutes is greatest for women majoring in the Biological and Physical Sciences. Females in these two majors rank highest among all women in planning on immediate post-college enrollment in a graduate school program.

Those most likely to expect employment with some kind of government agency are women who have majored in the Social Sciences (38%), Psychology (21%), and the Others (19%); men most likely to expect such employment situations are in the fields of Social Sciences (26%), Psychology (23%), and Agriculture (25%).

Few of our respondents expect to enter family businesses or to be self-employed. Those which indicate self-employment are most likely to be males in Biological Sciences and Humanities.

Table 5.15 shows relationships between expected employer and scores on the work-attitude orientation scale. Since work attitude differences have already been shown to be associated with differences in sex and field of study, it is not surprising to find variations in work attitudes that are associated with expected career employer.

Respondents who anticipate working in a large corporate setting score more positively than all others on believing that "a job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money." These same students score more negatively than all other students on "private life is more important than a job, unmaterialistic,

Table 5.14

Sex, Field of Study, and Expected Job-Employer Setting

Field of Study	Elementary-Secondary School System		Private Company Over 100 Employees		Hospital or Social Welfare Company		Private Company Less Than 100 Employees		College or University	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %
Agriculture	-	-	25	-	-	-	13	-	13	-
Biological Sciences	-	13	11	4	25	20	2	7	9	16
Business Administration	-	-	51	60	-	-	23	26	-	7
Education	77	91	4	1	-	2	4	-	7	1
Engineering	-	-	67	-	-	-	10	-	2	-
Health Professions	-	-	67	5	22	72	-	7	-	-
Humanities	5	22	17	16	6	11	12	8	24	15
Physical Sciences	4	14	33	51	6	-	4	3	15	11
Psychology	4	9	10	8	15	35	13	4	19	17
Social Sciences	7	8	24	8	6	30	16	7	8	5
Other	4	20	25	24	-	11	19	15	17	7

Table 5.14 (cont'd)

Field of Study	State or Local Government		Self-Employed		Federal Government		Research Organization Institute		Other		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Agriculture	13	-	-	-	13	-	13	-	13	-	(8)	(1)
Biological Sciences	4	7	33	2	-	2	11	27	5	2	(57)	(45)
Business Administration	5	-	9	7	4	-	1	-	7	-	(104)	(15)
Education	2	1	-	-	2	1	-	1	4	2	(156)	(478)
Engineering	6	-	3	-	5	-	3	-	4	-	(116)	(2)
Health Professions	-	7	11	-	-	5	-	3	-	1	(9)	(39)
Humanities	7	5	18	5	2	9	2	3	7	6	(87)	(111)
Physical Sciences	4	-	14	-	4	3	14	17	2	1	(72)	(35)
Psychology	19	18	10	-	4	3	2	1	4	1	(48)	(78)
Social Sciences	13	25	5	-	13	13	2	3	6	1	(182)	(76)
Other	8	13	15	4	4	6	-	-	8	-	(53)	(46)

anti-business." The males in this work-attitude category also tend to be the group least concerned about their job setting.

Males expecting to be self-employed do not generally reflect the factors "success oriented through hard work;" and "job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money." Both males and females expecting self employment score positively in the category "private life is more important than a job, unmaterialistic, anti-business." Finally, the self-employed are inclined to score negatively on "I like to work - working will make me a better person."

Those expecting to be employed in a school system, particularly females, score very positive on "success oriented through hard work." This group is also inclined to score negatively (again more so in the case of women) on "worried about job being boring, uncreative; no useful guidance."

Those selecting colleges and universities as most likely employer score negatively on "job is not a way of life, just a way to earn money" and "I like to work - working will make me a better person." They score very positive on "private life is more important than a job, unmaterialistic, anti-business."

Those selecting hospital, church, and welfare agencies score very positively on "private life is more important than a job, anti-business." The women in this group score negatively on "success oriented through hard work;" the males score negatively on "job is not a way of life - just a way to earn money."

Females anticipating employment with the federal government score more positively than all other respondents in concerns about their "job being boring, uncreative, no useful guidance."

Moving beyond salary and career setting expectations we turn now to an analysis of data dealing with the respondents' perceptions of, and awareness about, the job market. There are two questions upon which we will focus. First, to what extent are college students aware of the job market in their field at the time they select their college major? Second, what are the perceptions of the job market several weeks prior to college graduation?

Data collected from questionnaires and personal interviews clearly indicate that in many instances college students have little realistic information about the status of the employment market. It is also apparent that in the process of choosing a field of study or a specific career few students are exposed to data dealing with available job opportunities, career requirements, and other useful information of importance in the evaluation of career alternatives. The college experience contains little if any systematic exposure to career guidance of career selection. Data presented in other portions of this report make clear that students do not feel that they receive career-salient information or guidance from their academic advisors, faculty or other members of the college community. These same data also make clear that many students, particularly first-generation college goers see the lack of specific skill training and career guidance as a major shortcoming of their undergraduate training.

In answer to the question "When you selected your college major, how aware were you of the job market for your chosen field?" students reported

Table 5.15

Sex, Work Attitude Orientation, and Most Likely Employer

Most Likely Employer	Success Oriented Thru Hard Work		Not Way of Life-Just A Way to Earn Money		Worried About Job Being Boring, Uncreative; No Useful Guidance		Private Life More Important Unmaterialistic; Anti-business		Worried About Job Setting		I Like Work, Working Will Make Me A Better Person		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Big Private Company	1	-2	3	2	0	0	-3	-3	-2	0	0	1	(247)	(75)
Small Private Company	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	-3	1	0	0	0	(101)	(36)
Family Business	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	(10)	(1)
Self-employed	-2	0	-2	0	0	0	2	2	1	0	-2	-1	(74)	(12)
Research Organization	-2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	(31)	(28)
College or University	0	-1	-2	-2	1	1	3	2	1	2	-1	-2	(74)	(56)
School System	1	3	0	0	-1	-2	0	0	0	-1	0	0	(136)	(485)
Other Institution	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	(6)	(3)
Federal Government	-1	0	0	0	0	3	0	-1	-1	-2	0	0	(46)	(33)
State, Local Government	-1	-1	0	1	0	1	2	1	-1	0	0	0	(59)	(58)
Hospital, Church Welfare, etc.	0	-2	-2	0	-1	0	3	3	1	0	0	0	(44)	(111)
Other	0	2	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	(24)	(13)

that thirty-nine percent (39%) were "very aware;" forty-three percent (43%) were "not too aware;" and eighteen percent (18%) were "not at all aware."

While differences in job-market awareness do not vary significantly by sex, they do vary by field of study. Those indicating the greatest awareness of the job market are found in the Health Professions and Engineering. Those indicating the least awareness of the job market are found in the Physical Sciences, Psychology, Social Sciences, and the Humanities. When students are asked to comment upon job opportunities in their field of study, they respond in fairly vague and general terms. The usual responses were something like: "Well, I heard things were pretty good" or "I understand that the job market is pretty meager." When pressed about where they have obtained job-market information the responses are equally vague. "I was talking to a guy who graduated last year" or "you hear about how tough things are" or "my cousin said that it was hard to find a teaching job."

Regardless of the source or reliability of job-market information, most graduating seniors (68%) believe that there are now fewer jobs available in their field than was the case when they made their career selection. Nineteen percent (19%) perceive that the job market for them has stayed approximately the same. Only five percent (5%) believe that there are a now more jobs available; eight percent (8%) report that, even at a time only a few weeks prior to graduating they "don't know" what their career's employment patterns have been.

Both sex and field of study reflect significant differences in our sample's perceptions of their particular careers' current job market. Women, more so then men, (71% to 64%) see a shrinking job market.

Table 5.16

Sex, Field of Study, and % Reporting "Fewer Jobs" in Their Fields

Field of Study	M		F	
	%	N (Total Sample)	%	N (Total Sample)
Agriculture	50	(8)	__	__
Biological Sciences	32	(57)	54	(46)
Business Administration	68	(104)	47	(15)
Education	83	(157)	91	(482)
Engineering	91	(116)	__	(2)
Health Professions	33	(9)	54	(39)
Humanities	57	(88)	54	(113)
Physical Sciences	67	(72)	72	(36)
Psychology	55	(49)	40	(79)
Social Sciences	50	(189)	47	(77)
Other	43	(53)	49	(47)

Table 5.16 shows the percentage of students in each field who say that there are now fewer jobs in their field. We are not attempting to pass judgement upon the validity of the assesments made by the respondents; rather, we only point out what the perceptions of students are and how these vary by sex and field of study. Nor can we at this stage say anything about how perceptions of the job market will influence the job-seeking behavior of these graduating seniors. We do find that the field which contains the largest single number of seniors (Education) is the group most likely to perceive their career market as having fewer jobs available (83% of the males and 91% of teh females make such a response). Another group reporting high percentages in the "fewer jobs" category are males in Engineering (91% indicate this perception). The most optimistic picture is provided by males in the Biological Sciences and the Health Professions, in which only thirty-two percent (32%) respectively, indicate this view.

Perceptions of the job market do not appear to be related to differences in salary expectations or to differences in long range professional education plans. Nor do we find any significant relationship between job-seeking behavior and job-market judgement.

Clearly, students in our survey do feel for the most part that the job market is now more restricted than it was at the time they made their career choices.

What is not clear is the criteria, experiences, and information utilized in making such judgements. We also know from the data obtained from the questionnaires and personal interviews that discussions about careers, employment opportunities, and the dynamics of the world of work are not an intregal part of undergraduate training. With the exception of questions raised by parents or peers, students are rarely confronted with the need to think seriously about career futures. The impetus for assessing employment opportunities and alternatives often does not occur until the student approaches the completion of his college studies. College graduation represents for many students the completion of the rites of passage. The expectations are clear - either entry into the job market or enrollment in graduate school (or, for some females, marriage might preclude either of these first two alternatives.)

While recognizing that eventually their college education would be completed, few students seem to have been provided with an opportunity to explore and discuss post-college career futures. As noted earlier, there is minimal (if any) pressure within the formal education process compelling the young to learn more about the dimensions and realities of career markets. It is a rare academic advisor or faculty member who will share even his own limited work experiences and feelings with a student. What career information does come to students is usually in the form of announcements posted by the college placement office. Hence for many students the first real encounter with the world of work, the processes of job seeking and job finding, and the attempt to match career realities with career expectations, begin during the last weeks of the senior college year.

The consequences of deferring the pursuit of career related decisions and the search for employment leads to a situation in which the majority of graduating seniors find themselves without jobs or job leads at the time of college graduation.

We asked each of the respondents who did not expect to enter graduate school in the fall term following their June, 1972 graduation to answer this question: "Which of the following best describes your post college graduation job situation?" The outcomes were as follows for the 1,356 students who answered this question:

31% had seriously sought but had not found a post-graduation job
7% had seriously sought but had not found a post-graduation job which they were willing to accept
23% had found a post-graduation job
39% had neither seriously sought nor found a post-graduation job

Focusing exclusively upon only those who did seek a post-graduation job, we see that almost two-thirds were unable to find employment. Of those who did find post-college work (a total of 310 respondents), fifty-eight percent (58%) described their jobs as ones with which they were very pleased; thirty-three percent (33%) described their jobs as ones with which they were somewhat pleased; and the remaining nine percent (9%) stated that they had obtained jobs with which they were not very pleased.

Both sex and field of study are associated with variations in job searching behavior and job obtainment. While the proportion of women in the sample who "had neither seriously sought nor found a post-graduation job" is similar to that of the men, women are much more likely to indicate that they "had seriously sought but had not found a post-graduation job." Twenty-four percent (24%) of the males compared with thirty-eight percent (38%) of the women fall into this latter category. Men are slightly more likely to report being "very pleased" with the jobs they have obtained than are women (15% of the males; 11% of the females.) Keeping in mind that women, regardless of their fields, anticipate lower salaries, it is probable that their job demands and expectations are somewhat lower than those of men. Nevertheless, our data make clear that women are less successful in obtaining employment than are males.

Table 5.17 presents data on sex, field of study, and the following three job-situation categories: 1) Employment has been seriously sought but not found; 2) Employment has been neither seriously sought nor found; and 3) Employment has been seriously sought and found. With the exception of the Biological Sciences, in each field women more so than men report that they have looked but not found work; they are less likely therefore to indicate that they have found a job.

At first glance the data presented in Table 5.17 gives the impression that those who have looked for work are most likely to report that they have found a job of some kind. Such however, is not necessarily the case with all respondents in all fields. For some students in some academic majors, the higher rate of employment search occurs because they have been unable to find jobs. For example, women in Education report the highest incidence of seeking a job. At the same time their rate of finding a job is no greater than that of other students who have done far less job seeking. Females in Education are high in job seeking because they have been less successful in securing a post-graduation job. It is apparent that sex and field of study are fairly good predictors of job status. Males in the Health Professions have been most successful in finding work; females in the Health Professions are next highest. Females in the Humanities do more job seeking than do the males in Humanities,

Table 5.17

Sex, Field of Study, and Post-College Job Status
(limited to students not attending graduate school in Fall, 1972)

	Sought but Did not Find a Job		Did not Seek a Job		Found a Job of Some Sort		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Agriculture	50	__	17	__	33	__	(6)	(_)
Biological Science	28	21	62	64	10	15	(21)	(28)
Business Administration	27	38	47	46	26	16	(85)	(13)
Education	42	58	27	26	31	16	(126)	(415)
Engineering	40	__	27	__	33	__	(94)	(_)
Health Professions	__	6	17	29	83	65	(6)	(35)
Humanities	13	29	69	55	18	16	(54)	(78)
Physical Sciences	46	46	33	45	21	9	(39)	(24)
Psychology	9	26	52	62	39	12	(23)	(58)
Social Science	31	37	43	50	26	13	(105)	(60)
Other	17	19	50	72	33	9	(40)	(43)

but fall below the men in job attainment. Similarly, males in the Social Sciences and Psychology seem to do better in obtaining work even though they do not appear to have invested greater efforts in finding work.

We cannot explain why some students in some fields are more (or less) likely to indicate that they have not seriously sought work. The observed differences cannot be explained by over-all perceptions of the difficulty or ease with which one can obtain employment in one's field. Health Profession majors and Biological Science majors are exactly alike in perceptions of job availability in their fields, yet the Biological Science majors are far less likely to report that they have looked for work.

Males in Psychology and the Humanities are very similar in evaluations of the job market in their fields but are quite different in their job-searching behavior. Males in Engineering are most pessimistic about the job market in their field but are not much higher in job seeking than are males in the Physical Sciences who hold an overall more optimistic view of their job market.

The data suggest that those fields which contain large proportions of lower SES students tend to have the highest percentages of students who report that they have seriously sought a post graduation job.

There is also evidence to suggest that job searching behavior, and success or failure in finding employment, are related to both work-attitude orientation and personality characteristics. What we cannot say with any degree of confidence is whether differences in work orientation and personality influence job-search behavior and job attainment, or whether job-search and job-obtainment experiences influence work attitudes and self-perceived personality characteristic responses. Our impression is that it probably works both ways. The connections we find are shown in Table 5.18 and 5.19.

Table 5.18 in summary shows the following salient connections:

For Those Who Did Not Seek a Job -

a) They are negative on "success oriented through hard work."
b) The females score very positive on "worried about job setting being boring, uncreative, no useful career guidance."
c) The males score somewhat positive on the factor "private life more important than a job, unmaterialistic, anti-business."
d) They score positive on "worried about job setting."
e) They score highly negative (especially the males) on "I like work - working will make me a better person." With one exception, the males show greater variation on the work attitude factors. We propose that this difference is a result of the fact that women, as we noted earlier, do not feel they have the same control over their work destinies as do the men. Further evidence to support this observation is found when we look at the connections between work attitude orientation and job status for those who sought but did not find a job.

Looked But Did Not Find Work

a) The women score negatively on the factor "worried about job being boring, uncreative; no useful career guidance."
b) The women score negatively on "worried about job setting."

Found A Good Job

a) Both males and females earned positive scores on the factor "success oriented through hard work."
b) Both men and women score negatively on "worried about job being boring, uncreative; no useful career guidance."
c) While the men score slightly positive on the factor "worried about job setting," the women tend to score positively. This difference can be explained by differences in job expectations and the criteria utilized in evaluating a job. A woman's criteria of a "good job" is not always the same as that of a male. It would appear that women expect less and are willing to settle for less.

With regard to differences in personality characteristics, the most dramatic contrasts are found when comparisons are made between those who did not seek work and those who report that they have found a job.

The non-seekers: Negative on "practical, logical, cautious;" "ambitious, aggressive, a leader;" and "moral, very religious, honest." Positive on "hostile alienated, unhappy." Positive score for females on "analytical, insightful, an intellectual." For the males, positive scores on "beautiful, loving, thoughtful."

The good-job holders: Negative on "hostile, alienated,unhappy." Positive on "ambitious, aggressive, a leader;" "secure, confident, happy;" and "moral, very religious, honest."

Table 5.18

Sex, Job Status, and Work Attitude Orientation

Job Situation	Success Oriented Thru Hard Work		Not Way of Life-Just A Way to Earn Money		Worried About Job Being Boring Uncreative; No Useful Guidance		Private Life More Important Unmaterialistic; Anti-business		Worried About Job Setting		I Like Work, Working Will Make Me A Better Person		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Can't finu job	0	0	0	0	0	-2	-1	0	0	-2	1	1	(139)	(277)
No job I want	1	2	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	2	1	(41)	(47)
Didn't seek job	-2	-2	0	0	1	3	2	0	2	1	-3	-2	(231)	(291)
Found good job	3	2	-1	0	-2	-2	0	0	-2	1	1	0	(88)	(83)
Found OK job	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	(60)	(38)
Found poor job	0	-1	0	0	2	1	-3	-1	2	0	1	0	(16)	(9)

Table 5.19

Sex, Job Status, and Personality Characteristics

Job Status	Practical Logical Cautious		Hostile Alienating Unhappy		Ambitious Aggressive A Leader		Analytical Insightful Intellectual		Confident Secure Happy		Easy-going Fun-loving Athletic		Moral Religious Honest		Beautiful Loving Thoughtful	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	R	M	R	M	F
Can't find job (MALES = 139; FEMALES = 277)	1	1	0	-2	0	0	0	-1	-1	-1	0	0	1	1	0	0
No job I want (MALES = 41; FEMALES = 47)	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Didn't seek job (MALES = 231; FEMALES = 291)	-1	-1	2	2	-3	-3	0	1	0	-1	2	0	-2	-2	1	0
Found good job (MALES = 88; FEMALES = 83)	0	0	-2	-1	3	2	0	-1	2	2	0	0	1	1	0	0
Found OK job (MALES = 60; (FEMALES = 38)	0	0	-3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	1	0	-1	0
Found poor job (MALES = 16; (FEMALES = 9)	-2	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	-2	0	0	0	0	0

Again, we are unable to say with any degree of certainity which are the independent and dependent variables. What we can show are relationships between employment situations, work-attitude orientations, and personality characteristics.

As was pointed out earlier in this chapter, the majority of the college seniors in this sample perceive a shrinking job market; additionally, the majority do not have a firm employment commitment at the time they participated in this research. Regardless of whether they had sought or obtained employment, most of our respondents make clear that they would be very concerned if they were unable to obtain a job immediately after college graduation. Of those who do not plan on a Fall, 1972 enrollment in a graduate or professional school, eight percent (8%) say they would "not be concerned at all" if they were unable to obtain a post-graduation job; forty-four percent (44%) report that they would be "somewhat concerned," and forty-eight percent (48%) say that they would be "very concerned."

Responses to this question about degree of concern are significantly influenced by the sex of the respondent. While thirty-nine percent (39%) of the males indicate that they would be "very concerned" should they be unable to obtain immediate employment, more than half of the women (53%) indicate a similar level of concern. The greater level of concern expressed by females is in part explained by differences in SES between the two sexes. The lower the SES of the student, the greater the expressed concern; as described in Chapter 2 of this report, the women in our sample tend to come from the lower SES families. Another reason for women's greater concern is no doubt stimulated by the job-searching experiences they had already encountered at the time they filled out the questionnaire. Data already discussed indicates that more women than men had seriously sought and not found work. Having already tested the job market and not found work would certainly contribute to one's concern about post-college career futures.

Within the male sample those who have majored in Education, Engineering and the Social Sciences are highest in being "very concerned." Those expressing the least concern (among males) are majors in the Biological Sciences, Humanities, and Others. Those expressing the greatest concern tend to be from fields with the largest proportions of lower SES students; those indicating the least concern tend to be from fields with the highest proportions of high SES students.

The sources and types of concern which might arise if the respondent is unable to find work immediately upon graduation are noted in Table 5.20.

Differences between men and women are not significant. For both, "financial problems" are the major source of concern (55% of the males; 58% of the females). Women, slightly more than men, indicate "boredom," and "personal feelings of inadequacy" as potential primary sources of concern. Males are slightly higher than females in mentioning "pressure from parents" and "attitude of spouse or girlfriend."

Table 5.21 deals with the course of action respondents feel they would take if they were unable to find an immediate post-graduation job. The differences between males and females are minimal. The largest proportion of both sexes (54% of the men and 56% of the women) say they would "seek any sort of job at

Table 5.20

Sex and Source of Major Concern if Unable to Find Immediate Post-College Employment

	M	F
	%	%
Financial Problems	55	53
Boredom	9	14
Parental Attitudes	4	1
Personal Feelings of Inadequacy	24	29
Attitude of Spouses Boyfriend, Girlfriend, etc.	4	1
Other	4	2
	(596)	(763)

all" to tide them over until the type of job they want appears. The next most frequently selected alternative course of action is, "Select another field of interest even if it meant that you could not use the skills acquired through your education" (19% of both sexes). Twelve percent (12%) of both groups say they would "go to graduate school."* Twelve percent (12%) of the males and nine percent (9%) of the females would continue to search for a job in their field. Only one percent (1%) say they would wait until they obtained the job they wanted in their field.

It is apparent then that only a few respondents expect to wait for the ideal job to fall into their laps. The large majority would continue the job search if they were unable to find work. Males and females do, however, differ with regard to the difficulty they believe they would encounter in finding some alternative job for which their college experience did not prepare them. Five percent (5%) of the men and ten percent (10%) of the women say that the switch to an alternative job would be "very difficult." Forty-nine percent (49%) of the men and fifty-seven percent (57%) of the women feel that such a job transition would be "somewhat difficult." Forty-six percent (46%) of the men and thirty-three percent (33%) of the women believe such a job change would "not be difficult at all." It seems likely that the observable sex differences reflect the greater job freedom and mobility allowed to men in our society.

Aside from the sex differences, field of study is also associated with perceived difficulties in alternative career obtainment. Both men and women in the Health Professions are most likely to see a job switch as being "very difficult." Next highest are men and women in the Biological Sciences, followed by males in the Social Sciences and females in the Humanities.

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*It should be noted that the respondents to this question were only those who did not intend to go to graduate school; that is, these twenty-four percent (12% of each sex) were not intending to enroll in graduate programs unless they were unable to find employment.

Table 5.21

Sex, and Course of Action to be Taken if Unable to Obtain Employment Immediately After Graduation

	M	F
	%	%
Seek any job	54	56
Change job field	19	19
Go to graduate school	12	12
Continue search in own field	12	9
Wait for good job	1	1
Other	2	3
	(597)	(770)

In the final portion of this chapter we deal with the real and untested barriers which our respondents have encountered or expect to encounter when seeking a job. The actual question asked was "Which of the following best describes the problems which you encountered (or would expect to encounter) when seeking a job? (circle as many as apply)". Responses are noted in Table 5.22.

The distribution presented in Table 5.22 makes clear that the major barrier to job attainment perceived by our respondents is the "tight job market" (81% of the total). This factor is followed in importance by the need to find a job with desirable characteristics. These are the only two barriers selected by a more than one-half of the respondents. Differences in responses to the remaining items are in most cases a function of the respondents' sex and field of study. We will deal with each of the already experienced or anticipated barriers separately, noting significant differences influenced by sex and field of study.

The Tight Job Market

Females are more likely to select this item than are males (77% of the males; 85% of the females). The difference probably represents the more extensive work-seeking experience of the women and the less flexible job mobility which they feel they have. Among the females the tight job market is selected most frequently by majors in the Physical Sciences (92%); and is endorsed equally by those majoring in Education and the Social Sciences (90%). It is referred to least often by women in the Health Professions (46%).

Among the males the tight job market is mentioned most frequently by those in Engineering (87%), Education (82%), Psychology (82%), and the Physical Sciences (80%). It is not mentioned at all by those in the Health Professions and by only fifty-four percent (54%) of the males majoring in the Biological Sciences.

Table 5.22

Problems Encountered or Expected to Encounter in Job Search*

Problem Area	%
Tight Job Market	81
Finding Job with Desirable Characteristics	53
Adequacy of my Skill Qualifications	25
Adequacy of my Educational Qualifications	20
Not Knowing What I Want to Do	19
Sex Discrimination	13
Not Knowing Where to Look	13
Racial Discrimination	5
Other	5
None	2

*Total % exceeds 100; multiple selection possible

Job With Desirable Characteristics

Little difference occurred between men and women in this category (52% of the males and 55% of the females). For males it is mentioned most often by those majoring in the Health Professions (78%), Others (64%), Business Administration (60%, and Psychology (57%). It is least frequently selected by males who have majored in the Biological Sciences (40%), Engineering (45%), and Education (48%).

For women it is referred to most frequently by those majoring in the Health Professions (72%), Others (64%), and Psychology (61%). Least likely to mention this concern are women from Education (51%) and the Biological Sciences (52%). In general the response frequencies of both sexes are similar when there is control for the respondents' field of study.

Adequacy of Skill Qualifications

Virtually no differences emerged between males and females (26% of the males and 24% of the females). For men this factor is most often mentioned by Psychology majors (35%), Humanities majors (34%), and Social Science majors (33%). It is least frequently selected by male majors in the Health Professions (0%) Education (19%), and Biological and Physical Sciences (23%). A similar field pattern is found among women. Those most likely to be concerned about skill qualifications are women who have majored in the Social Sciences (39%), Psychology (37%), and the Humanities (37%). Those least likely to refer to this item are majors in Education (14%) and Health Professions (15%). Unlike their male counterparts, women in the Physical and Biological Sciences are somewhat more inclined to select this perceived barrier (23% of the males compared to 30% of the females).

Adequacy of Education Qualifications

There is little difference between the responses of males and females to this item (20% of the women and 21% of the men). The highest incidence of males expressing this concern are found among Engineers (31%), followed by males in the Social Sciences (25%), Psychology (24%), and the Humanities (24%). In both, concern over "adequacy of educational qualifications" and "adequacy of skill qualifications"; majors in the Social Sciences, Humanities, and Psychology are highest in contrast to male majors in all other fields. Engineering majors are near the mean for all males with regard to skill qualifications, but ten percent (10%) above the mean on perceived inadequacies of educational qualifications.

For females those most likely to indicate a concern over educational qualifications are Psychology majors (33%), Social Science majors (29%), Biological Science majors (26%), and Physical Science majors (25%). Those least likely are women majors in Education (14%) and the Health Professions (20%).

Not Knowing What I Want To Do

The males are somewhat higher on selecting this factor (25% of the males; 14% of the females). Again we would suggest that the difference can be explained in part by the greater career choice and job mobility available to men. An additional important variable is socioeconomic status. Students of higher SES feel less pressure to make an immediate career choice and less pressure to find immediate employment. As mentioned earlier the males in our sample are generally of more affluent backgrounds then are the females. It would seem then that despite the overall social expectation that men attain career crystalization at least by the time they become college graduates, such is not the case with a fourth of our male students.

The differences by field of study are as follows. The highest level of future personal career uncertainty is expressed by males in Business Administration (38%), Humanities (37%), Social Sciences (31%), and Physical Sciences (30%). Those most certain of post-college career intentions are found in the Health Professions (none of the male majors in the Health Professions indicate that they are uncertain about what they want to do), Education (9%), and Biological Science (16%). For women uncertainty is highest for those majoring in the Humanities (32%), Others (30%, and Business Administration (27%). The lowest incidence of uncertainty for women is in the fields of Education (6%) and Health Professions (13%). The field of study patterns for women are similar to those of the men, with two exceptions. One, female majors in the "Others" fields more frequently express uncertainty about what they want (30% of the women vs. 21% of the men); and two, female Biological Science majors are slightly more likely to report uncertainty than are their male peers (20% to 16%).

Sex Discrimination

As would be expected, females are far more likely to select "sex discrimination" as a barrier then are males (1% of the men compared with 24% of the women). The males most likely to mention sex discrimination are Psychology majors (4%) followed by those in the Physical Sciences (3%). Sex discrimination is most frequently mentioned by women majoring in traditionally male-dominated fields of study such as those in Physical Sciences (57%), Business Administration (53%), and Biological Sciences (50%). Sexual discrimination is least frequently referred to by women majors in Education (12%)

and the Health Professions (23%). Falling in the middle, but still above the mean, are women in Psychology (39%), Social Sciences (35%), Others (34%), and the Humanities (33%).

Not Knowing Where to Look

There is little sex difference in the percentages who indicate this category (12% of the women and 14% of the men.) The differences by field of study are also similar for both sexes. The more eclectic or open-ended the job opportunities, the more likely the student is to indicate that he does not know where to look for work. Hence, those majoring in fields which lead directly to specific employment opportunities (such as Education) are least likely to select this factor. It is not selected by any of the males in the Health Professions. It is selected by only four percent (4%) of the males in Education and seven percent (7%) of those in Engineering. In contrast, this item was selected by twenty-four percent (24%) of the males in Psychology, twenty-one percent (21%) of those in the Humanities, and eighteen percent (18%) of those in the Social Sciences. Similar patterns emerge in the female sample in their responses to this category; "not knowing where to look" is least often mentioned by those majoring in the Health Professions (5%), Education (7%), and Business Administration (7%). It is most frequently selected by women whose undergraduate majors have been Others (30%), Psychology (22%), Humanities (19%), and Social Sciences (18%).

Racial Discrimination

There is little difference in the percentages of males and females who select this item (5% of each sex). As would be expected, virtually all of the students who indicated this concern are nonwhite. Again as would be expected, field of study analysis reveals that this item appears with more frequency in those fields more heavily populated with nonwhite students (as Education). In the two fields where nonwhite women are highest in expressing an intent to go onto graduate school, we find the highest percentages of females selecting the racial discrimination factor (11% of the women in the Biological Sciences and 8% of the women in the Social Sciences).

The more salient findings discussed in this chapter are briefly summarized here. Both sociological and psychological variables are related to the processes of field of study selection, career choice, career crystalization, and job searching behavior. In comparison with data collected by N.O.R.C. in 1961, we find few differences in the selection of field of study. The one possible exception would be the decline in the proportion of seniors enrolled in Business Administration.

Sex and SES are important influences in field of study selection and career choice. With relatively few exceptions, females, regardless of SES, are very much concentrated in a limited number of fields. The majority are in Education, followed by enrollment in fields which are very much help-client oriented (social work, welfare service, and nursing). Those women most likely to depart from these more traditional work roles tend to come from higher SES backgrounds.

In general, the lower the SES of the student, the more likely he or she is to be enrolled in an institution with limited curriculum offerings; to be enrolled in a field of study which is not usually associated with graduate and post-college professional training; and to anticipate entering the full-time job market (as opposed to graduate school) upon the completion of the baccalaureate degree. Finally, men are almost twice as likely as women to anticipate entering graduate school in the fall following college graduation. Conversely, women are almost twice as likely as men to anticipate working at full-time jobs in the fall following college graduation.

Probably because most nonwhites have lower socioeconomic backgrounds, and in most instances perceive racial discrimination in the job market, they tend to major in areas which have well-defined job skills and credentials and/or in which nonwhites have been relatively successful in employment obtainment The two fields of study therefore most frequently selected by non-whites are Education and Social Sciences.

We find a consistent fit between the differences in field of study and the differences in work-attitude orientation and personality characteristics. As would be anticipated, there are marked differences between the post-college preferences and the post-college expectations of graduating seniors. Most would prefer a period of time for travel, rest, "getting it together," etc., prior to entrance into the post-college job market or graduate school. The majority however, expect either to be working full-time jobs or to be enrolled in graduate school within a few months of college graduation.

Salary expectations differ in both field of study and sex. In each field of study and for each time period analyzed in this research, women consistently anticipate lower salaries.

The data also suggest that there is a greater fit between the work-attitude orientation of males and their job-related behavior than is the case with women. Males have a greater range of employment possibilities and greater work selection mobility; hence their career preferences and salary expectations are more likely to be a reflection of their work attitudes than is the case with women. Males appear to be more able than women to match their post-college work settings and life styles with their personal attitudes and values.

Most graduating college seniors do not have much in the way of realistic or reliable information about the job market. Such data seem to be lacking both at the time they select their major field of study and at the time they are about to seek employment. Nevertheless, there is general consensus among the seniors that the job market is tight and that there are now fewer jobs available in their fields than at the time they made their career choices.

At the time they participated in this research many students had not seriously sought work, and the majority had not found post-college employment. Most students are very much concerned about their employment futures. Most would encounter serious financial difficulties if they were unable to find full-time employment soon after graduation. The greatest concern over the future is expressed by those students of lower SES backgrounds. At the same time, the data make very clear that few students intend to sit idly by waiting for "the job" to fall into their laps. The majority would be willing to take any job while they search for the work which comes closest to fulfilling their work preferences and expectations. A fairly large number would be willing to take a job in another field even if it meant they were unable to utilize the skills which they had learned in college. The major barriers these students see as preventing them from finding the work they seek is the perceived "tight job market" and finding work with "desirable job characteristics."

Females are more likely than men to express concern about the tight job market and as would be expected are more likely than men to mention the potential barriers of sex discrimination. Men, more so than women, are more likely to state that "not knowing what I want to do" is a potential barrier to finding the work they seek. Again, since women have fewer work opportunities and work mobility, they are less likely to be uncertain about the kind of work they seek and the kind of employment they can find.

CHAPTER 6

THE RESPONDENTS: THE EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Chapter 6 presents data on a variety of items dealing specifically with the college experiences of our respondents. Major areas of the chapter include field of study selection and career decision resources and influences, sources of financial support during the college years, enrollment patterns, and evaluation of the college experience in terms of skills acquired and the perceived characteristics of curricula. Finally, we include data on respondents' attitudes toward, and concerns about, their graduation and entry into the post-college world.

The Majors and Career Selection

As mentioned in preceding chapters, the student distribution into the eleven major fields of study is affected by the variables of sex, school, and socioeconomic status in the following significant ways:

1) Females are clustered in fewer majors than are males. Fifty-one percent (51%) of the women are in the colleges of Education, and the majority of the remaining are in the fields of Psychology, Social Sciences, and the Humanities. In contrast, the men are more evenly distributed across the eleven majors, with the twenty-one percent (21%) found in the Social Sciences as the largest concentration of males.

2) The emphasis upon and availability of different majors varies from school to school. For example, Fletcher and Reeves clearly reflect an emphasis upon the field of Education followed by the Social Sciences; other majors at these colleges are either sparsely populated (Biological Science, Physical Science, Humanities) or nonexistent (Agriculture, Business Administration, Engineering, Health Professions).

3) Enrollment in the eleven majors also reflects socioeconomic differences in the sample, particularly for the males. Our data indicate that the student's SES is related to his decision to enter or not enter a major which leads to the need for advanced academic degrees. That is, students with higher SES backgrounds are more likely than those with lower SES backgrounds to report going on to graduate-level work. Hence, the higher SES males are most likely to be located in the fields of Business Administration, Physical Sciences, Biological Sciences, and the Humanities. Males of lower SES tend to be most heavily located in Education and in the Social Sciences (excluding Psychology).

The selection of a college major has long-range implications in the lives of students, as the majority of them will progress from the completion of their educations to jobs which are directly related to the training they have received in college. Obviously then, the field of study decided upon by a student is a critical decision not just in terms of his college experience, but also in terms of his career opportunities, experiences, and potential future life style. It would be expected therefore, that significant institutional efforts would be made to acquaint students with the field of study choices available to them, and to inform them of the concomitant job market characteristics and expectations which they should consider.

Students in our study were asked, "How influencial were the following people in your decision concerning the selection of your college major?" Table 6.1 describes the frequencies with which each of the possible category responses were indicated.

Colleges and universities assign academic advisors to all students for the purpose of facilitating the general requirements of selecting courses, ensuring proper registration, and the keeping of accurate records and forms. Additionally, these advisors are expected to be the more personal "middle man" between the student and the institutional bureaucracy, providing the advisee with at least one person who combines both understanding and some power in the situation with a more personal interest in the student himself. Hence, the college or university advisor is in the unique position of possessing both institutionally-sanctioned influence on behalf of the student and an "assigned interest" as well. Given these characteristics, it would be expected that students would frequently report the influence of their academic advisors in their selection of a college major.

In fact, they are the least frequently reported decision resource. It is clear that the transference of knowledge possessed by the professionals in the academic situation to those who may require direction or advice does not take place. While it is not suggested that the educators are entirely responsible for this breakdown in communication about critical college and career decisions, the inference from the fact that so many respondents do indicate that someone has influenced them suggests that students seek aid from those whom they perceive to be available, viable sources, and that academic advisors do not fall into this category.

Contrary to the hopeful expectations of many parents, our data suggest that the parental impact upon this decision is relatively slight for most students. In general, females are more likely to mention their parents than are males; however the total percentage of females in this category is inflated by the more frequent such reporting by women at Fletcher and Reeves. An exception to this pattern is the Latham sample in which the male percentage (14%) exceeds that of the female (8%).

Females, particularly those of the lower socioeconomic standing characterized at the Fletcher and Reeves schools, apparently retain more dependency ties upon their parents than do most males. This finding is not surprising in light of various studies which have indicated the higher degree of dependency which is typically part of female socialization. The greater incidence of parental influence found among the females may also be a reflection of the fact that females tend to receive more financial aid from their parents than do the males, and are perhaps in some cases inhibited by that aid.

Among males, the most salient determinant of whether the student indicated a high degree of parental influence was socioeconomic status. Males from homes of higher status are more likely to report that their parents have been "very influential" in their decision concerning the selection of their college major. It may be that since these parents possess traditional credentials of success which continue to be valued by the general society, their advice in decision making is somewhat more likely to be perceived as relevant by their college

Table 6.1

School, Sex, and Sources Identified as "Very Influencial" in Student Field of Study Selection
(Multiple Response Possible; Percentages Do Not Sum to 100.)

School	Parents		College Faculty		Assigned Advisor		Person in Field		Friends		Others*		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		
State U	10	10	14	14	6	6	19	27	8	8	34	51	(204)	(204)
Fletcher	12	21	12	7	8	6	29	35	8	6	53	54	(151)	(256)
Latham	14	8	12	18	6	5	20	27	11	8	41	49	(297)	(161)
Metro	8	7	14	15	5	4	25	23	7	6	44	62	(191)	(213)
Reeves	18	30	19	12	8	8	29	35	20	7	48	48	(65)	(116)
TOTAL %	12	15	13	13	6	6	23	29	9	7	42	54	(908)	(950)

*The "Others" subsumes a wide variation of candidates. The most frequent response in this category was "myself." Additional write-ins ranged from specific answers such as brother, sister, relatives, spouse, girlfriend, high school counselor, minister, etc., to mysteries such as "Bob James", "the Society", and "the city I live in".

age sons. Additionally, the educational experiences of higher SES parents are more likely to resemble those of their college-age children, as many of them have also been college attenders; hence, their children may regard advice on academic decisions as more credible than that of parents in general.

In summary, students are not likely to seek out their parents as referents in their decisions about the selection of a college major. Several alternative explanations are available as reasons for this communication lack, however the most readily apparent one may be based on students' perceptions of their own college situation. Students may tend to believe that the experiences with which they are faced both in college and in the subsequent work world are unique to their generation; therefore, they do not believe in the relevance of parental guidance in such matters. Even while still in the college setting, students are exposed to the rapid obsolescence of skills and knowledge which takes place in the employment market. This awareness contributes to their perceptions and evaluations of parental adjustments to change and to the potential usefulness of parental guidance in decision making. An additional explanation may be that once children have left the physical setting of the home, they simply prefer to seek out one another or those who have closer contact with their present life situations. In either case, the result is that only six percent (6%) of the total sample report significant parental influence in the selection of their college major.

The defined category with the greatest percentage reported was "person in field chosen" (26%). Females are slightly more likely to report this source than are males. Since a substantial number of females are in the Education and Social Science fields, it is probable that teachers are the source referred to by many.

As part of the effort to assess the process by which students determine their field of study, data were collected on the number of times that students change majors. The changing of a major has differential impact, depending upon when in the college career it occurs, and into what field of study the student chooses to reassign himself. As a general rule, the longer the student waits to make a change, the more penalized he will be by that decision. The structure of the educational system is such that credits obtained in one major are not necessarily applicable to another. While this procedure is understandable (credits taken in English literature have little usefulness in applied Chemistry), they nevertheless act to lock a student into what may have been a premature decision about his academic and future work preferences.

The frequency with which these students change their majors over the college years varies according to school and field of study, as well as sex. A larger percentage of females in the total sample report that originally selected majors have not been changed (See Table 6.2).

The larger proportion of females indicating no change in major is in part a reflection of two basic factors. First, females tend to see fewer field of study alternatives available to them in general. Our data clearly indicate that few women assign themselves into traditionally male-dominated fields. In essence, they still do not regard majors such as Business Administration, Engineering or the Physical Sciences as viable career alternatives. They therefore perceive fewer fields of study change opportunities than do males. Secondly, the largest number of women in our sample are in the field of Education. This is an important fact because our data suggest that some fields (such as

Education) are far more stable than others. In essence, these fields reflect early closure; that is, students in these majors apparently enter the college situation with relatively complete decisions about the field of study they will pursue. High among these early closure studies are Engineering, Physical Science, Education, Health Professions, and the Biological Sciences. Lowest (and therefore reflecting the greatest level of major selection mobility and change) are Psychology, Humanities, and the Social Sciences.

It would appear that fields of study which are themselves highly structured are selected by their future graduates at an earlier time than are majors which traditionally reflect less internal structure. Students who prefer more structure are most likely to seek out and align themselves early in their college careers. The differences which appear between field of study change frequencies may also be explained by the cost factors involved in the change of major. That is, a student would probably be less likely to reassign himself into the field of Education after two or three years of course work in Liberal Arts, as the Education requirements are highly structured and necessitate a distinct curriculum sequence. A student considering such a change would undoubtably have to assume additional terms of academic work to complete the requirements of Education. Conversely, an Education major contemplating a change to Liberal Arts has more flexibility both in the generalized applicability of the course credits he has already earned and in those which he must obtain to fulfill the requirements of a Liberal Arts major. Hence, fewer students in the early closure fields identified above have changed into those fields, while more of those in the less structured majors have made field of study changes.

To further analyze the relationships between declaration of major, career selection, and available assistance resources for such decisions, respondents were asked for information about: 1) When they had made their decisions about the type of career they wanted after graduation; and 2) When they felt was the best time for making such decisions. Twenty-nine percent (29%) report that they came to college with the career choice already made. Those with pre-college career commitments are most often respondents who report no change in field of study over the college years and are found primarily in those majors associated with early closure. In retrospect only five percent (5%) of the total sample think that the best time for the making of a career decision is before entering college.

Over one-half of the students (56%) had determined their future job preferences by the end of their second year in college. Academic institutions encourage or even require students to declare a field of study by this time, hence the determination of career choice and the field of study selection often coincide. It might have been expected that students from higher SES groups would differ from others in time of career selection, as they potentially have more financial flexibility and can afford to take more time in assessing the various fields of study and subsequent career alternatives. No such SES differences emerge in the assessment of when the career decision had been made; however, socioeconomic standing influenced the students' perception of when such decisions should be made.

Students from higher SES groups are more likely to report that career decisions should be deferred until well into the college years. Only forty percent (40%) of the males and forty-five percent (45%) of the females in these groups believe that the choice should be made within the first two years. The discrepancies between when they in fact made the decision and when they apparently would have preferred to make such a decision reflects to a degree their belief that they could have afforded to wait a little longer. In contrast, students with low socioeconomic standing are more likely to report that career decisions should be made in the first two years (55% of the males and 80% of the females).

Table 6.2

School, Sex, and Frequency of Field of Study Change

	Once		Twice		Three or more		Not at all		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
State U.	35	36	13	11	7	11	45	42	(203)	(204)
Fletcher	34	16	5	3	3	1	58	80	(150)	(256)
Latham	34	38	11	8	3	7	52	47	(297)	(161)
Metro	38	31	6	10	1	3	55	56	(189)	(213)
Reeves	27	26	8	5	0	0	65	69	(62)	(115)
Total %	35	28	9	7	3	5	53	60	(901)	(949)

Statistically significant differences occur for both males and females when their responses to the question, "When should career decisions be made," are viewed in terms of field of study. Table 6.3 presents these differences among groups according to sex, field of study, and response percentages to the two questions.

Within every college major the females report having made their choice earlier than the perceived optimum time. In the total sample sixty-five percent (65%) of the females indicate that their career and field of study decisions had been made within the first two years of their college experience.

Males are less likely than the females to indicate this early closure (47%). It is apparent then, that particularly for the women, there is a significant difference between the time when they did make their decision about careers and when they subsequently think such a decision should be made.

The category response indicating the most flexibility, "There is no specific time for such a decision," reflects two types of attitude sets. Students sometimes mean that no general principle should be applied since the programs and the individuals in them differ so widely. However, based on interview data and the written-in comments, it is more likely that these responses refer to the belief that people should be assessing their career situation and alternatives throughout the entirety of both education and subsequent employment.

In conclusion, our findings suggest that many of these college students feel that their decisions about field of study and career selection were made prematurely. Early field of study closure is influenced by the student's sex,

Table 6.3

Actual and Preferred Time of Career Selection
(Selected Categories; Percentages do not sum to 100)

Field of Study		Within 1st two years		Within major selected		There is no time		
		Should Be	Was	Should Be	Was	Should Be	Was	N
Business Adm.	M%	42	42	5	3	34	13	(98)
	F%	27	80	20	0	20	7	(15)
Engineering	M%	56	47	13	4	14	8	(112)
	F%	50	100	0	0	50	0	(2)
Physical Sciences	M%	46	44	6	4	30	13	(69)
	F%	31	42	14	0	19	11	(36)
Education	M%	72	70	4	4	16	5	(141)
	F%	64	83	12	2	13	2	(460)
Health Professions	M%	63	75	0	25	25	0	(8)
	F%	53	82	21	3	21	0	(38)
Biological Sciences	M%	63	59	5	2	18	4	(51)
	F%	39	50	9	2	34	11	(44)
Agriculture	M%	50	63	13	0	25	25	(8)
	F%	100	0	0	0	0	0	(1)
Psychology	M%	26	26	9	6	43	9	(47)
	F%	29	36	15	4	24	12	(76)
Social Sciences	M%	41	42	7	3	31	15	(172)
	F%	41	50	13	4	25	12	(75)
Humanities	M%	28	29	7	1	46	33	(83)
	F%	30	38	10	4	40	17	(112)
Others	M%	35	37	4	4	35	20	(51)
	F%	30	40	6	2	35	17	(47)
TOTAL %	M	47	47	7	3	28	13	(846)
	F	50	65	12	3	21	7	(906)

SES, and the nature of the field of study. Women are more likely than males to indicate that they made their college major and career selection sooner than they retrospectively would have chosen to do. Lower socioeconomic status students, both males and females, report early closure more frequently than do the upper SES groups. While these lower SES students also report that they think these decisions should be made within the first two years, it seems likely that this congruence is affected by the number of career alternatives available to students. It would appear that the fewer the perceived alternatives, the less inclined the student will be to believe that career choice should be delayed.

The fields of study reporting the highest percentages of students who settled into their career and college major selections within the first two years are Education and Health Professions, Business Administration, and Engineering.

Sources of Financial Support During College Years

The following question was asked of our respondents:

> "Different students have different financial sources for covering the costs of their college education. Listed below are a number of such financial sources. Indicate both the source(s) from which you have received financial aid in order to complete college and the percentage of aid coming from each source. The total should be 100%."

Phrasing the question in this manner provided data which is not only descriptive in its frequency distributions, but can also be analyzed for the types of clustering which multiple sources of support reflect. These frequency distributions and the subsequent clusterings have been analyzed across the variables of sex, school, and type of financial support.

Basic Support Sources

A large number of respondents (73%) indicate that they have received at least some financial support from their parents (Table 6.4). Of those thus reporting, twenty-seven percent (27%) state that they have obtained ninety percent (90%) or more of their college funding from parents. These figures suggest that almost one-fifth (19%) of the total sample receive ninety percent (90%) or more of their financial support from their parents. Conversely, twenty-seven percent (27%) of the survey participants report that they did not receive any financial aid at all from their parents.

Another income source frequently mentioned is savings from part-time and/or summer work, as reported by sixty-eight percent (68%) of the students. However, the bulk of these respondents (63%) state such monies contribute less than a third (30%) to the total financial expenditure of their college education, while only eight percent (8%) report that sixty percent (60%) or more of their financial needs have been met by this source. Obviously, while part-time and/or summer savings play an important role in the financial maintenance of two-thirds of our respondents, the role is limited to one of a supplementary rather than a primary nature.

Table 6.4

Sex, and Sources of Financial Support During College

(Multiple category responses possible; percentages do not sum to 100.)

Support Sources	Males %	Females %	Total Sample %
parental/family aid or gifts	70	76	73
part-time and/or summer work	74	62	68
scholarships and grants	46	49	48
NDEA, government, and college loans	28	31	29
other repayable loans	8	10	9
savings from full-time work	9	7	8
spouse employment	4	4	4
personal military service	7	--	3
Total N	(908)	(950)	(1858)

Utilization of monies obtained through scholarships and grants is reported by almost half of our respondents (48%). As in the case of savings from part-time and/or summer employment, however, a large percentage (47%) of those reporting this source indicate that scholarship and grant funds have contributed less than one-third (30%) to total financial needs. It can be seen from Table 6.4 that the following three sources are most likely to be reported by the respondents as a whole: parental/family aid or gifts; scholarships and grants monies; and savings from part-time and/or summer employment.

Various types of loans (NDEA, government, college and others) also are reported by a relatively large percentage of our sample (36%). Virtually none of the respondents indicate that these sources represent a large portion of their financial support during college. Other sources providing some support include savings from full-time work (8%), spouse employment (4%), and personal military benefits (3%).

Basic Support Sources Differentiated by Sex, School and Percentage of Support

The reports of financial support indicated above are influenced significantly by the sex of the student and the school attended. Table 6.5 describes the impact of these two factors upon the financial categories most frequently reported by respondents.

Table 6.5

Percentages of Income Support According to Support Category, Sex, and School

Financial Source	School	Not a Source		Less than 50%		More than 50%		N	
		M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Part-time work and/or summer savings	State U.	20	39	60	56	20	5	(204)	(204)
	Fletcher	34	34	44	53	22	13	(151)	(256)
	Latham	19	42	77	57	4	1	(297)	(161)
	Metro	24	32	49	57	27	11	(191)	(213)
	Reeves	58	50	27	43	15	7	(65)	(116)
	TOTAL %	26	38	58	54	16	8	(908)	(950)
parental/family aid or gifts	State U	32	20	36	25	32	55	(204)	(204)
	Fletcher	37	23	27	26	36	51	(151)	(256)
	Latham	9	6	27	19	64	75	(297)	(161)
	Metro	41	29	35	36	24	35	(191)	(213)
	Reeves	72	48	9	24	19	28	(65)	(116)
	TOTAL %	30	24	30	27	40	49	(908)	(950)

Table 6.5 (cont'd)

Financial Source	School	Not a Source		Less than 50%		More than 50%		N	
		M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Scholarships and Grants	State U	42	51	47	41	11	8	(204)	(204)
	Fletcher	67	52	26	36	7	12	(151)	(256)
	Latham	58	65	28	27	14	8	(297)	(161)
	Metro	41	34	39	40	20	26	(191)	(213)
	Reeves	72	61	12	17	16	22	(65)	(116)
	TOTAL %	54	51	33	34	13	15	(908)	(950)
NDEA, College, Government Loans	State U	72	70	22	18	6	12	(204)	(204
	Fletcher	76	80	15	13	9	7	(151)	(256)
	Latham	70	75	29	24	1	1	(297)	(161)
	Metro	71	60	25	31	4	9	(191)	(213)
	Reeves	81	58	14	20	5	27	(65)	(116)
	TOTAL %	73	69	23	21	4	10	(908)	(950)

It can be seen from Table 6.5 that wide discrepancies exist between who does and who does not (and to what extent) have access to certain sources of financial support during the college years. In the case of parental/family aid and gifts, only twenty-eight percent (28%) of the Reeves males report that they receive any funds from parents. When compared with the ninety-one percent (91%) of the Latham males and the ninety-four percent (94%) of the Latham females, the fifty-three percent (53%) usage of parental support reported by the Reeves females appears small. The other three schools tend to cluster between the extremes of Reeves nonuse and the Latham high use of this source. Across all schools, the females are more likely to report income support from their parents than are the males; and again across all schools, in all cases where parent support is reported, females are more likely to report over half of their total support as coming from this source. The range of those who receive more than half their support from their parents is from the seventy-five percent (75%) reported by the Latham women to the twenty-eight percent (28%) reported by the Reeves women.

Savings from part-time and/or summer employment is another category which reflects significant differences among schools and between sexes. The high rate of nonuse of these funds which is indicated by the Reeves males (only 42% indicate this source) is in part explained by their greater use of savings from full-time employment. (See Table 6.5) State University, Latham, and Metro University males are more likely to report this source than are the females (particularly at Latham); the sex variable is not differentiating for the Fletcher students. Table 6.5 reflects the fact that most students who do utilize this financial source do not obtain more than half of their income from it (as opposed to parent aid in which, especially for females, large percentages of students receive over half of their financial support if it is reported as a source).

Utilization of monies from scholarships and grants varies according to both sex and school. Females are less likely to report this source at Fletcher and Latham than are their male counterparts; the reverse is true for State University, Metro University and Reeves. Use of scholarships and grants contributes over half of needed funds for only a small percentage of both males and females, ranging from a low of seven percent (7%) for Fletcher males to a high of twenty-six percent (26%) for Metro University females.

NDEA, government, and college loans are reported by even fewer of our respondents than are scholarships and grants, again varying with sex and school (Table 6.5). Those most likely to report such a source are Reeves females, followed by Metro University females. Twenty-seven percent (27%) of the Reeves women who report this source indicate that they obtain over one half of their income from government and college loans. Again, the extreme of nonuse is Latham, where less than one percent (1%) of the males and only one percent (1%) of the females who state this source rely upon it for over one half of their financial needs.

Table 6.6 describes the percentage of students who fall into each of the support source categories according to school and sex, and provides another view of the ways in which the students are distributed with regard to financial support.

In summary, the major source of financial support of these graduating seniors is parental aid or gifts, followed by utilization of savings from

Table 6.6

Sex, School, and Sources of Financial Support

School	Part-time and/or summer savings (68% of sample)		Parent aid or gifts (73% of sample)		Scholarships and grants (48% of sample)	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %
State U.	24	21	22	23	28	22
Fletcher	15	28	15	27	12	26
Latham	36	16	43	21	30	12
Metro	21	25	17	21	26	30
Reeves	4	10	3	8	4	10
TOTAL %	100	100	100	100	100	100
	(671)	(589)	(635)	(722)	(417)	(465)

	NDEA, government and college loans (29% of sample)		Other repayable loans (9% of sample)		Savings from full-time work (8% of sample)	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %
State U.	23	21	36	20	20	17
Fletcher	15	18	13	28	22	21
Latham	35	14	28	13	10	11
Metro	22	29	18	18	25	32
Reeves	5	18	5	21	23	19
TOTAL %	100	100	100	100	100	100
	(254)	(295)	(73)	(95)	(82)	(67)

part-time and/or summer work. Other important sources of support for the general sample are scholarships and grants, and various types of loans. We were interested in the ways in which these sources are patterned with one another in the general sample, and what variations occur when there is control for sex and school.

Support Source Patterns

One-quarter (24%) of our respondents indicate that a single source has provided them with ninety percent (90%) or more of their financial requirements during college years. In the majority of these cases, parental aid or gifts was cited as the source, such that a total of nineteen percent (19%) of all respondents indicated that they have been funded ninety percent (90%) or more by their parents (Table 6.7).

In the remaining seventy-six percent (76%) of the sample where more than one source of support was indicated, the following general patterns emerge when the data was analyzed through a Pearson Correlation Coefficient matrix and various crosstabulations. Dual combinations* tended to develop in the following manner:

1) The most frequently indicated pair was that of part-time and/or summer savings combined with parental aid or gifts.

2) The next most frequently indicated pair was that of part-time and/or summer savings combined with scholarships and grants.

Some combinations are quite unlikely to occur in this sample. For example, although parental aid is cited as a source by seventy-three percent (73%) of our total respondents, and appears in dual combination with part-time and/or summer savings in fifty-two percent (52%) of the cases, it is rarely associated with savings from full-time work (3%). These figures suggest a wide discrepancy between the occurrence of parental support when the respondent utilizes savings from full-time employment.

Of the students who report both part-time and/or summer savings and parental aid or gifts as sources, the majority (69%) indicate that less than one-third (30%) of their financial requirements have been filled by part-time and/or summer employment, while the range of income percentages received from parents is widely distributed. Fifteen percent (15%) of all those who indicate both part-time and/or summer savings and parental aid report that the savings contribute less than ten percent (10%) to their requirements. Respondents who fit into this dual combination category are presented in Table 6.9 according to percentage of support received, school, and sex.

Respondents who fit the dual combination of part-time and/or summer savings and scholarships and grants are presented in Table 6.10 according to percentage of support received, school, and sex.

* Dual combinations include those cases where only the two categories being considered are reported, as well as those cases in which the two categories are reported in conjunction with others.

Table 6.7

Indication of Single Primary Source of Funds (defined as those cases in which the respondent reports that 90% or more of his entire financial needs have been met by the source).

	Part-time and/or summer savings		Full-time employment savings		Parental and/or gifts		Own Military service benefits		Scholar-ships and grants		N	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		
School												
State U.	0	1	1	1	9	29	1	0	3	1	(204)	(204)
Fletcher	2	1	1	0	13	22	2	0	0	0	(151)	(256)
Lathum	0	0	0	2	25	47	0	0	3	1	(297)	(161)
Metro	2	1	2	1	6	16	2	0	4	2	(191)	(213)
Reeves	3	1	8	1	5	4	3	0	5	4	(65)	(116)

Table 6.8

Dual Combination Income Sources*

Sources of support	%
part-time and/or summer savings and parental aid or gifts	52
part-time and/or summer savings and scholarships and grants	38
parental aid or gifts and scholarships and grants	32
part-time and/or summer savings and NDEA, government, and college loans	24
NDEA, government, and college loans and other repayable loans	20
parental aid or gifts and other repayable loans	20
Total N	(1858)

* Dual combination includes those cases where only the two categories being considered are reported, as well as those cases in which the two categories are reported in conjunction with others.

It can be seen that wide discrepancies exist between the sexes, the schools, and the percentages of the various sources which are utilized, as well as the number of sources reported by the respondents. The following profiles of the students, based on data in Tables 6.11 and 6.5 describe these differing patterns.

Profiles of Financial Support

State University males: The males at State University are most likely to indicate three major sources of financial support: part-time and summer savings; parental aid and gifts; and scholarships and grants. While eighty percent (80%) have reported part-time and/or summer savings, three-quarters of that (80%) indicate that they have received less than one-half of their financial needs from this source. It is apparent that while most of these State University student males report the incidence of savings from the occurrence of part-time and/or summer employment, in most cases these monies serve as a supplementary source contributing only a relatively small percentage of their financial support.

Parental aid is reported by only sixty-eight percent (68%) of the State University males; however almost half of them (48%) state that they received over half of their needed income from this source. At least some support from scholarships and grants is also indicated by over half (58%) of the State University males; however, only nineteen percent (19%) report that it has

Table 6.9

Respondents Indicating Both Part-Time and/or Summer Savings, and Parent Aid or Gifts as Dual Combination*

MALES: % of Support	State U.		Fletcher		Latham		Metro		Reeves	
	S %	P %	S %	P %	S %	P %	S %	P %	S %	P %
less than 30%	52	37	48	36	78	18	45	47	42	33
30% - 60%	38	30	32	35	21	30	35	32	42	25
60% - 90%	10	26	10	18	1	34	17	14	16	42
90% - 100%	0	7	0	11	0	18	3	7	0	0
TOTAL %	57 (116)		47 (71)		75 (219)		50 (94)		20 (12)	

FEMALES: % of Support	S %	P %	S %	P %	S %	P %	S %	P %	S %	P %
less than 30%	73	28	69	29	94	16	78	39	75	48
30% - 60%	25	26	28	28	6	23	20	30	23	30
60% - 90%	2	22	3	30	0	30	2	19	2	20
90% - 100%	0	24	0	13	0	32	0	12	0	2
TOTAL %	48 (97)		51 (129)		55 (88)		48 (102)		36 (40)	

Support Source S = Part-Time and/or Summer Savings

Support Source P = Parent Aid or Gifts

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* Dual combination includes those cases where only the two categories being considered are reported, as well as those cases in which the two categories are reported in conjunction with other categories.

Table 6.10

Respondents Indicating Both Part-Time and/or Summer Savings, and Scholarships and Grants as Dual Combination*

MALES: % of Support	State U S %	G %	Fletcher S %	G %	Latham S %	G %	Metro S %	G %	Reeves S %	G %
less than 30%	42	60	46	44	75	53	32	41	70	40
30% - 60%	49	35	37	46	24	21	31	46	30	10
60% - 90%	9	3	7	10	1	22	17	9	0	50
90% - 100%	0	2	0	0	1	4	2	4	0	0
TOTAL %	50 (101)		27 (41)		37 (110)		51 (96)		16 (10)	

FEMALES: % of Support	S %	G %	S %	G %	S %	G %	S %	G %	S %	G %
less than 30%	63	52	58	48	93	46	69	34	76	36
30% - 60%	32	41	37	44	7	43	28	49	24	44
60% - 90%	4	6	5	8	0	11	3	17	0	20
90% - 100%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	36 (73)		38 (97)		29 (46)		53 (112)		23 (25)	

Support Source S = Part-Time and/or Summer Savings

Support Source G = Scholarships and Grants

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* Dual combination includes those cases where only the two categories being considered are reported, as well as those cases in which the two categories are reported in conjunction with other categories.

Table 6.11

School, Sex, and Sources of Support
(Multiple category selection possible; percentages do not sum to 100)

Income Source	State U.		Fletcher		Latham		Metro		Reeves		Sample		Overall
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	%
Part-time and/or summer savings	80	61	66	66	81	58	76	68	42	49	74	62	68
Savings from full-time work	8	5	12	6	3	4	11	9	29	10	9	7	8
Parent aid or gifts	68	80	63	77	91	94	59	71	28	53	70	76	73
Parents military service	1	2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Personal military service	6	0	13	0	1	0	10	0	9	0	7	0	3
Spouse employment	2	2	8	7	1	1	6	2	3	6	4	4	4
Scholarships and grants	57	49	13	48	42	35	59	66	28	39	46	49	48
NDEA loans; gov't. and college loans	28	30	25	20	30	26	29	40	19	47	28	31	29
Other repayable loans	13	10	7	11	7	8	7	9	6	17	8	10	9

constituted over one-half of their support.

State University females: The females at State University report the same three major sources of support as do their male counterparts (part-time and/or summer work savings; parent aid or gifts; scholarships and grants); however, they are far more likely to indicate substantial parental aid than are the males. Eighty percent (80%) report parental aid; of that eighty percent (80%) over two-thirds (68%) indicate more than one-half of their support comes from this source.

While sixty-one percent (61%) of the State University females report utilization of funds from part-time and/or summer employment, only eight percent (8%) indicate that over one-half of their funding was provided by this source. Fewer State University women than men report scholarships and grants monies (49% females compared with the male 57%), and fewer state that such sources have contributed more than one-half to their support (17% female compared with the male 19%).

Fletcher State College males: Fletcher males reflect the same general pattern of part-time and/or summer work savings, parental aid or gifts, and scholarships and grants as do the State University males. However, the incidence of part-time and/or summer savings and parental aid are approximately the same, while percentage indication of grants and scholarships funding is reported by only one-third (33%) compared with the fifty-seven percent (57%) of the State University males. It can be seen in Table 6.11 that the Fletcher males also report more frequent usage of savings from full-time employment, military service benefits, and spouse employment than do the State University males. It is apparent that the Fletcher males must resort to a wider range of income sources than do State University males.

Fletcher State College females: As with the State University females, the women at Fletcher are more likely to report parental support than are their male student counterparts (77% of the women versus 63% of the men). They are also more likely to indicate support exceeding one-half (again, as are the other females in the sample). In two-thirds (66%) of those cases reporting parent aid, the support exceeds one-half. The utilization of part-time and/or summer savings for half or more of the required support was indicated by nineteen percent (19%) of these women. The pattern of scholarships-and grants-use differed from that of the State University females somewhat in that one-quarter (26%) of the Fletcher women indicate they have used this source for over half of their financial needs, compared with the seventeen percent (17%) of the State University females.

Latham University males: Latham males follow the typical pattern of part-time and/or summer savings, parental aid, and funds from scholarships and grants; however, they report parental aid more frequently than does any other group except Latham females (91% versus 94% for the females). They also report the highest incidence of part-time and/or summer employment savings. Very small numbers of male students at Latham rely on the savings of part-time and/or summer work to provide more than 50% of their income (5% of those reporting this source compared with 33% of the Fletcher males or 36% of the Metro University males).

Latham males are almost twice as likely to report over half of their income support as having come from their parents. It can be seen then, that not only are these men far more likely to indicate their parents as sources of financial support than are the males of any other school, but they also indicate more substantial support. While there are some reports of scholarships and grants funding, and the use of various types of loans, these sources tend to reflect fairly minimal percentages of support.

Latham University females: Latham females are more likely to report parental support than are the Latham males, and even more likely to report this source at over one-half support (80% of the women state this level of support compared with the 70% of the males). As with the other females, they are less likely to report part-time and/or summer savings than their male student counterparts. When they do report income from part-time and/or summer savings, it virtually never exceeds one-half. Among the females, Latham women are the least likely to report use of funds from scholarships or grants. It is apparent that the high percentage of females receiving parent aid, and the substantiveness of that support, greatly reduces their need to seek other financial sources.

Metro University males: The pattern of support for Metro University males falls into the familiar part-time and/or summer work savings, parental aid, and funds from scholarships and grants. However, it is interesting to note that parent aid and monies from grants and scholarships are reported with equal frequency, and that the percentages of support obtained through these two sources do not differ greatly. That is, of those students reporting parental aid (59%), only a little more than one-third (40%) report more than half of their financial requirements were met in this manner. Of those reporting the use of scholarships and grants (59%), a little more than one-third (34%) report more than half of their financial needs met through this source.

A substantial number of Metro University males report part-time and/or summer savings (76%); of these, thirty-six percent (36%) indicate that half or more of their support came from this source. As with the Fletcher males, the Metro University males also report above-average use of full-time employment savings as a source.

Metro University females: While the Metro University females tend to more frequently report parental aid than do the males, they still fall below the proportions of State University, Fletcher, and Latham women indicating this source. Of the seventy-one percent (71%) who do state parental aid, only one-half (49%) indicate that they received over half of their needs of financial support from this source (compared with the 80% of Latham women; 66% at Fletcher; and 68% of the State University women). Metro University females report above-average use of part-time and/or summer work savings, savings from full-time work, scholarships and grants monies, and NDEA, government, and college loans. With the exception of the Reeves women, the Metro University females report the highest incidence of loan usage of any other group. These women obviously are utilizing a wider range of sources than are the women of Latham, State University, or even Fletcher. They are also the most likely of all groups to report use of scholarships and grants.

Reeves College males: The Reeves males are far less likely to report parental aid than any other group. Only twenty-eight percent (28%) report this source, compared with the ninety-one percent (91%) at Latham. At the same time, they are least likely of all groups to report savings from part-time and/or summer employment as an income source. It would seem that, in fact, they cannot afford to utilize part-time and/or summer work savings since they receive so little support from their parents. The pattern of part-time and/or summer work savings and parental aid (as discussed earlier) was based upon the provision of greater percentages of parent aid supplemented with smaller percentages of part-time and/or summer savings. Since these students have little in the way of parental aid, they cannot rely upon the small percentages of support usually reflected by savings from this part-time and/or summer savings. Table 6.11 describes the wide range of sources utilized by the Reeves males. No other male group reports such a wide range of substantial support from so many sources. While the support pattern has been clearly parental support, part-time and/or summer employment savings, and monies from scholarships and grants for most of the groups (and the variations have taken place within the priorities of these sources and the percentages utilized), it can easily be seen in the Reeves males that two additional sources have assumed importance - savings from full-time employment, and utilization of NDEA, government, and college loans. Of particular interest is the above-average reporting of savings from full-time work (30% compared with the over-all average of 9%).

Reeves College females: Reeves females, like all the sample females, are more likely to report parental aid than their male fellow students (53% for the women compared with 28% for the males). Nevertheless, this reported frequency is considerably lower than that of any other female group. Again similar to the Reeves males, they report with unusual frequencies the various types of sources. Although they under-report parental aid, part-time and/or summer savings, and monies from grants and scholarships, enough do report these sources to consider the sources as significant to them; additionally, they over-report savings from full-time work, NDEA, government, and college loans, and other types of repayable loans. These figures suggest that the females at Reeves have called upon six important sources of financial support compared with the usual three of the other groups. In the process of obtaining funds, forty-seven percent (47%) of the female students at Reeves report use of NDEA, government, or college loans; another seventeen percent (17%) usage of other types of loans is also reported. No other group nears the degree of debt of this type that the Reeves females accumulate, although that of the State University males and the Metro University females is also quite substantial.

Summary

While the majority of the respondents (73%) reported at least some financial aid from their parents, in most cases that parental support is supplemented by various other income sources. The most substantial additional contributions come from the students' part-time and/or summer employment savings, and monies from scholarships and grants. In either case these sources are usually utilized clearly as secondary sources and their contributions do not generally exceed half of the financial support needed. The males and females of Latham University reflect this pattern.

Of those relatively few students who indicate parental support of ninety percent (90%) or more, most are females. In fact, in the total sample females are not only more likely to report parental aid than are the males, but they also report more aid. This finding is somewhat surprising when student socioeconomic background is considered. Females in our sample tend to come from lower SES homes than do males. It would appear that two factors influence the higher percentage of parent support for females. First, parents have traditionally maintained the financial and emotional responsibility of daughters for longer periods of time than they have for sons. Second, due to the nature of the employment situation, it is more difficult for females to obtain part-time or summer employment that will significantly contribute to their college expenses.

The typical pattern of student financial support combines the three basic income sources of parental aid, savings from part-time and/or summer employment, and monies from scholarships and grants. When students have insufficient funds after the pooling of these three sources (or a combination of any two of them), they are most likely to resort to the various types of loans available to students. State University males are characterized by this particular pattern.

Differing patterns emerge when students have insufficient amounts of the fundamental financial aid from their parents upon which this typical pattern is built. For these students, the usual supplementary roles of part-time and/or summer work savings and scholarship and grants monies change into those of a primary support nature. Examples of this pattern are the Metro University females. When the parent aid is simply not available, or available to only a very limited degree, the student picks up a wider variety of support sources in order to obtain the necessary funds, as in the cases of the Reeves males and females who report substantial support from five and six sources. The two schools reflecting the least amount of parent aid (Metro University and Reeves College) also reflect the highest occurrences of personal debt resulting from the college years.

The College Years

Enrollment Patterns

Most field of study curricula are structured to fit a four year college experience, with some flexibility for finishing in either less than or more than this expected time period. The majority of our respondents (76%) report that the completion of their academic requirements had taken four years. Eight percent (8%) were able to graduate in less than four years. Females were more likely to be in this accelerated group (10% of the women versus 5% of the men) regardless of their socioeconomic background (See Table 6.12).

The larger percentage of females completing their educational requirements in four or fewer years (88% of the females versus 79% of the males) is in part explained by the finding that they receive greater financial backing from their parents. This greater economic support means that females have less pressure to contribute substantially to their own educational finances through employment. In the highest SES group ninety-four percent (94%) of the women complete college in four or fewer years. Additionally, females are less likely than males to have changed their fields of study during the college years; hence, they experience fewer credit losses due to curriculum changes. Males reflect wider SES variances than do the females because their generally lower parental support means increased incidents of part-time employment for those of the lower income groups, resulting in prolonged school enrollment. Additionally, there may be differential societal expectations of the degree to which males as opposed to females should contribute to the financing of their own educations. Data presented in the preceding section of this chapter dealing with sources of financial support indicate that females are more likely to report a single source of income (parents) and more likely to report a higher proportion of income from that source than are males.

Of those students who have required five years or more to complete their degrees (15% of the males and 8% of the females), the most salient explanation for their delay is their socioeconomic status. Those who defer are most likely to be from lower SES groups and hence undoubtably have had their academic

Table 6.12

School, Sex, and Years Required to Complete Degree

School		Less than three %	Three to four %	four %	Four to five %	five %	Five to six %	six %	N
State U	M	0	7	74	12	3	1	3	(204)
	F	1	16	76	5	1	0	1	(203)
Fletcher	M	2	3	69	4	9	4	9	(150)
	F	1	4	85	3	2	2	2	(255)
Latham	M	0	1	89	2	6	1	1	(295)
	F	1	1	95	2	0	1	0	(160)
Metro	M	2	5	62	6	8	5	12	(190)
	F	6	10	64	6	8	1	5	(212)
Reeves	M	0	9	44	13	8	9	17	(64)
	F	3	11	61	7	10	4	4	(111)
TOTAL %	M	1	4	74	6	6	3	3	(903)
	F	2	8	78	4	4	2	2	(941)

careers interrupted and slowed by the necessity of employment.

Table 6.13 shows that some field of study curricula are more conducive to slightly longer training periods, as in the case of the Health Professions; or contain degree requirements necessitating an exact sequencing of courses dependent upon early academic closure in the field, as in the case of Education and Engineering.

Table 6.13

Field of Study, Sex, and Length of Time for Completion of Degree

Field of Study	Less than four years M %	 F %	Four years M %	 F %	More than four years M %	 F %	N M	 F
Business Administration	6	7	85	87	9	6	(104)	(15)
Engineering	2	0	68	50	30	50	(117)	(2)
Physical Sciences	4	8	80	89	16	3	(73)	(36)
Education	6	9	65	79	29	12	(158)	(480)
Health Professions	0	8	11	51	89	41	(9)	(39)
Biological Sciences	9	11	79	80	12	9	(57)	(46)
Agriculture	13	0	63	100	24	0	(8)	(1)
Psychology	4	8	82	86	14	6	(49)	(79)
Social Sciences	4	20	74	62	22	18	(185)	(77)
Humanities	1	9	78	77	21	14	(89)	(114)
Others	2	11	72	85	26	4	(53)	(47)
Totals %	5	10	74	78	21	12	(902)	(936)

In addition to information on the number of years required to complete their degrees, students were asked to provide data on their enrollment patterns during the college years. It can be seen in Table 6.14 that a straight linear relationship exists between the report of full-time studies throughout the college years and the SES of the students for both males and females. That is, the higher the student's SES the more likely he will be to indicate full-time enrollment during the entirety of his college years.

The reported incidents of skipped terms and skipped years do not vary in frequency among the four SES groups. While we did not directly ask our respondents to indicate the activities they had been pursuing during these non-academic periods, data on employment patterns suggest that students of the lower socioeconomic groups are more likely to have been working during these times. Students in the upper categories are more likely to have dropped out for non-financial reasons such as dissatisfaction with school or opportunities for travel.

In summary, it would appear that two critical variables are involved in the length of time required for a student to complete his college education. The first of these, his socioeconomic standing, is reflected in both the necessity (or non-necessity) for extensive supplementary support from his own earnings. This factor has less general impact upon females because they have greater financial support from their parents. The second variable affecting the time required for degree attainment is the criteria of the major itself. That is, various fields of study may be characterized by specificity of curriculum sequence and professional requirements which can be conducive to a longer college training period.

Table 6.14

Sex, SES, and Patterns of Enrollment

(Multiple category selection possible; percentages do not sum to 100)

SES	Full-time		Full-time and part-time		Part-time		Skip terms		Skip years		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Very-Low	80	84	13	11	2	0	6	4	8	6	(239)	(321)
Mid-Low	81	85	13	10	2	0	9	9	5	5	(203)	(213)
Mid-High	87	88	7	7	0	0	4	8	4	5	(180)	(167)
Very-High	92	92	5	6	0	0	4	4	4	1	(286)	(249)
Total %	85	87	9	9	1	0	6	6	5	4	(908)	(950)

Sorority-Fraternity Affiliation

Sorority-fraternity affiliation varied widely among the schools and between the sexes in our sample. The distribution can be seen in Table 6.15

Although the females are less likely to report holding such an affiliation (30% of the females versus 40% of the males), the percentage range they report is very wide, with fifty-five percent (55%) of the females at Latham indicating sorority membership compared with only fifteen percent (15%) at Fletcher. Latham students, both males and females, are the most likely to report such membership. When subsequently asked the level of their involvement in their sorority or fraternity, most students report that they are "somewhat active" (40% of the males and 50% of the females) or "very active" (39% of the males and 32% of the females).

Table 6.15

School, Sex, and Sorority/Fraternity Affiliation

School	M %	F %
State U.	21	21
Fletcher	23	15
Latham	68	55
Metro	36	28
Reeves	33	34
Total %	40	30
	(360)	(281)

The SES factor appears highly related to affiliation for the males, such that the higher the SES, the greater the reported incidence of membership in a fraternity. Seventeen percent (17%) of the lowest socioeconomic group report membership compared with forty percent (40%) of the highest SES group. However, since substantial numbers of high SES students are found at Latham, it would seem reasonable to assume that the key independent variable is the school and not SES. This particular school, for its own internal reasons, has a greater emphasis upon the role of sorority and fraternity membership than do the other schools in our sample.

Grades

Comparison of the grade point averages reported by our students cannot be utilized for comparisons among the schools or the quality of the schools since the criteria for these grades are not standardized across the different institutions. Nevertheless, Table 6.16 presents some interesting discrepancies between the sexes at the schools.

It can be seen that females are more likely to report higher grades (B- and above) than are the males at all of the schools. This finding is particularly interesting in light of the fact that far more males intend to continue on with graduate school work than do females (32% of the males versus 18% of the females). It would appear that neither higher grades nor undergraduate financial support from parents are the definitive critical variables in the selection of graduate school attendance, since the females exceed the males at both; rather, it may be that while progressive thinking now condones the undergraduate education of women in preparation for occupational futures (preferably in the nurturant professions, however), the "ceiling" of educational credentials is perceived by both students and their primary income sources (their parents) to be at the baccalaureate degree. Additionally, we do not know the degree of either parental ability or willingness to continue to support their daughters in advanced degree attainment efforts. While these parents do in fact contribute more frequently and more substantially to the financial needs of their daughters, analysis of parental demographic variables indicated that their general SES is lower than that of the parents of male college students.

Table 6.16

School, Sex, and Grade Point Average

	A and A-		B+, B and B-		C+, C and C-		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
State U.	12	20	57	60	31	20	(203)	(203)
Fletcher	3	10	40	52	57	38	(150)	(252)
Latham	14	18	54	65	33	17	(296)	(160)
Metro	18	21	61	73	21	6	(190)	(209)
Reeves	13	10	53	61	34	29	(62)	(108)
Total %	13	16	53	61	34	23	(901)	(932)

Evaluation of the College Experience

The respondents in our study were asked if the college or university which they were attending was their first choice at the time of their enrollment. Females more frequently respond "yes" (71%) than do the males (65%). Table 6.17 describes the responses according to school and sex.

It can be seen that the group most likely to report their college as their first choice is the Latham females (81%). This high percentage is interesting when compared with that of the Latham males (61%). This discrepancy between the respondents at this particular school is perhaps best explained by the hypothesis that the males, given their higher socioeconomic status at this school, were more likely to have additionally applied to other institutions which would have provided them with even higher status and educational credentials in the occupations which they eventually hope to attain. This suggestion would fit other data which indicate that females have more apprehensions about job obtainment, report lower estimates of the salaries they will receive, and perceive less flexibility in their abilities and skills. These findings all point to a generally lower sense of expectations; hence, the females at this more prestigious school are more likely to be pleased with their attainment than are the males.

The percentage discrepancy between the eighty-one percent (81%) who reported Latham as their first choice and the fifty-two percent (52%) who reported Reeves as their first choice is a striking difference. As has been pointed out in other sections of this report, the students from the lower socioeconomic backgrounds have significantly less flexibility in the schools which they can afford to attend and the fields of study which subsequently become available to them.

It is therefore not surprising that students at both Reeves and Fletcher have not indicated these schools as their first preference with the same frequency as students at the other schools.

Table 6.17

School, Sex, and Percentages Reporting, "Yes, this institution was first choice for college attendance."

	M %	F %	N M	 F
State U.	73	73	(204)	(204)
Fletcher	59	67	(150)	(255)
Latham	61	81	(294)	(160)
Metro	73	76	(189)	(212)
Reeves	54	52	(65)	(115)
Total %	65	71	(902)	(946)

Crosstabulations of this question by the variable of SES substantiate that the students most likely to report that this is not their first choice in a school are those males in the highest SES group (60%). Again, it is our belief that these students' dissatisfaction with their schools as the first choice is a reflection of the fact that their expectations were higher and that they probably applied to schools of even higher status than those they are attending. No statistically significant differences are found among the females when compared through the variable of SES in their responses to this question.

As with the case of SES, no significant differences emerge among the various majors when considered in the female sample. For the males however, those least likely to indicate their schools as first preference are in the fields of Psychology, the Humanities, Social Sciences, and the Physical Sciences. Those most likely to report positive responses are in the majors of Agriculture, Biological Sciences, Engineering, and Business Administration.

All of our respondents were asked what had been their primary reason for seeking a college education. As might have been expected, the responses reflect clear (and in most cases interrelated) differences between the sexes and among the variables of SES, field of study, and school.

The most frequent response is in the category which reflects a concern for future occupational or educational plans ("career, job training"), such that thirty-seven percent (37%) of the total sample indicate this as their most important reason for going to college. Significant differences occur, however, within the schools, the fields of study, and the SES groupings. Table 6.18 presents percentage distributions for the three reasons most frequently cited.

Table 6.18

School, Sex, and Three Most Frequently Cited Reasons for College Attendance

School	Job Training M %	Job Training F %	Wanted Knowledge M %	Wanted Knowledge F %	Only Possibility M %	Only Possibility F %	N M	N F
State U.	47	33	11	20	19	22	(200)	(204)
Fletcher	38	54	10	12	10	12	(150)	(253)
Latham	23	17	12	17	38	40	(294)	(161)
Metro	45	36	10	23	20	22	(189)	(209)
Reeves	32	41	25	18	9	8	(65)	(114)
Total %	36	38	12	18	23	21	(898)	(941)

The students at Latham are less likely than the students of the other schools to indicate "job training," and the females at Reeves and Fletcher more frequently report this reason than do the females at the other schools. The largest percentage of Latham students can be found in the category "never considered any other possibility" (38% of the males and 40% of the females). This finding additionally reflects the SES differences among the schools; that is, the respondents from Latham are more likely to come from homes in which the college experience has already been precedented by parents and in which the economics are such that the student is not likely to face the necessity of beginning a work career immediately after high school. It is interesting to note that in general, the females are more likely than males to report "wanted to increase my knowledge" (18% of the females and 12% of the males). In addition to the three categories in Table 6.18, relatively large percentages of the Reeves and Fletcher respondents also indicate "wanted a college degree" as their primary motive for attending college; twenty-eight percent (28%) of the Fletcher and fifteen percent (15%) of the Reeves males, and ten percent (10%) of the Fletcher and twenty-two percent (22%) of the Reeves females also fall into this category.

Interesting differences occur among the fields of study, with the students majoring in Psychology, Social Sciences, Humanities, Others, and Business Administration least frequently reporting "career, job training" as their primary reason for college attendance. Most frequent reports of this motive are from the Health Professions, Engineering, Physical Sciences, Biological Sciences, and Education. Substantial percentages of the Education and Social Sciences majors also indicate the "wanted a college degree" response. These findings are interrelated with the impact of the schools themselves since the majority of the students at both Reeves and Fletcher are in the fields of Education and Social Sciences. For the Psychology, Humanities, Others, and Business Administration majors, the largest percentage responses are in the "never considered any other possibility" category. The Social Science majors are fairly evenly represented in the categories of "never considered any other possibility" and "career, job training." The Humanities majors are the only group to rank both "never considered any other possibility" (33%) and "wanted to increase my knowledge" (21%) above "career, job training" (16%).

Significant differences emerge among the four SES groups in the frequencies with which they indicate the various category responses. As might have been expected, the higher the SES, the less likely the student is to indicate that his primary reason for going to college is "career, job training," or "wanted a college degree," and the more likely he is to indicate "never considered any other possibility." These high SES students also report "a chance to mature" more frequently than do the other SES groups. Students who report "parental pressure" are more likely to be found in the two middle socioeconomic groups than in either of the highest or lowest groups.

It can be concluded that while differences occur along sex, SES, school, and field of study variables, in general these students approached their college educations with the primary intention of acquiring the necessary knowledge and skills that would facilitate the acquisition of the career of their choice. The frequency with which students indicate "never considered any other possibility" would seem to reflect the same attitude toward the necessity of academic credentials for career selection and success; that is, since this category is so frequently selected by the highest SES group (ahead of "career, job training") who come from homes in which both the parental educations and incomes are high, it is plausible that this response is a reflection of the fact that they know educational achievement is necessary to maintain the social and economic positions which have been obtained by their parents.

Having determined the priorities and goals with which students entered their college years, it is of interest to note their responses to "What would you say the college experience has provided you with in terms of skills needed in your future job?" The majority of students in the overall sample report that they have received "not much in the way of skills, but exposure to ideas" (56%). Table 6.19 describes the distribution of the students according to school and sex.

There is a tendency at four of the schools (excluding Latham) for more males to indicate the response "not much in the way of skills, but exposure to ideas" more frequently than females. This finding is in part a reflection of the differences in the way the males and the females are distributed in the various fields of study. The fields least likely to report this opinion are Education, Health Professions, and Engineering. Students in Education and the Health Professions tend to be females and are represented by substantial percentages in the categories of "vital part of long range training" and "complete requirements for the job I want."

The fields most likely to report that they have not received much in the way of employment skills are Psychology, Social Sciences, Humanities, and Business Administration. It would appear that those majors characterized by clearly defined job requirements toward which students strive (for example, educationsl certification and health professions qualifications) generally fulfill the job preparation expectations and goals of students. Those majors which are usually perceived to be more flexible college curricula (Psychology, Social Sciences, Humanities, etc.) unfortunately either do not in fact, or are not perceived to,

Table 6.19

School, Sex, and Skills
Acquired Through the College Experience
(Multiple responses possible; percentages do not sum up to 100).

	Vital part of my long-range training		Complete requirements for job I want		Not much in way of skills, but exposure to ideas	
School	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%	%	%	%		
State U	44	38	11	18	55	53
Fletcher	29	34	23	30	51	44
Latham	31	19	6	8	64	70
Metro	25	31	6	16	68	57
Reeves	39	39	22	34	51	35
Total %	33	32	11	21	60	52

	Exposure to ideas and people who encouraged work		Nothing at all		N	
School	M	F	M	F	M	F
	%	%	%	%		
State U	28	36	2	1	(204)	(204)
Fletcher	36	30	2	1	(151)	(256)
Latham	20	28	4	3	(297)	(161)
Metro	23	27	4	6	(191)	(213)
Reeves	37	26	2	3	(65)	(116)
Total %	26	30	3	3	(908)	(950)

adequately prepare the student with the job skills which he feels he needs to successfully compete in the employment situation.

As an additional indication of the students' attitudes toward their college educations and the learning experiences they have had, they were asked the following question and responded with the indicated percentages. (Percentages exceed 100 due to multiple responses.)

"Would you have liked your college experience:"

To have exposed you to more job/career alternatives. 48%

To have better equipped you to work in the field of your choice. 49%

To have provided you with more persons with whom you could have discussed your job preferences and concerns. . . .42%

To have generally broadened your knowledge. 40%

To have been essentially what it was. 20%

As in other instances where comparisons are made between males and females and their "anxiety levels" about their job skills and futures, females responding to this question are more likely to report discontent with the job alternatives to which they have been exposed (53% of the females versus 44% of the males) and concern about the adequacy of the job skills which they have obtained in college (55% of the females versus 43% of the males).

Males are not statistically differentiated from one another when considering the variables of SES or field of study except in their responses to "To have better equipped you to work in the field of your choice" in which the higher the SES, the less likely the male is to indicate this response. Differences occur among the schools with the Fletcher males the most frequent responders in the first three categories of the question (See Table 6.20).

The discrepancy between the Fletcher and Reeves males (51% of those at Fletcher compared with only 9% of those at Reeves) in their responses to "more exposure to job alternatives" can probably best be explained by the findings that more Reeves males plan to attend graduate school than do the Fletcher males (40% versus 14%); and that sixteen percent (16%) of the Fletcher males report that they will be working in the fall in a job not in their field compared with only three percent (3%) of the Reeves males.

Females report little differences among one another along the variables of SES and school, but statistically significant differences according to their fields of study. Those in Psychology and the Social Sciences are high in their indication of the first three categories which reflect concern with employment alternatives, training, and skills. Females in the Health Professions, Biological Sciences, and Business Administration are low in these concerns and high in their retrospective preference that their college experience "have been essentially what it was." A more detailed analysis of the relationships between sex, field of study, and students' employment preparation may be found in Chapter 5, "The Respondents: The World of Work and Careers." It is sufficient to conclude here that a discrepancy exists between the job preparation skills which most students

Table 6.20

School, Males, and Colleges Experiences Retrospectively Desired

(Multiple responses possible; percentages do not sum to 100.)

Males at	More exposure to job/career alternatives %	Better preparation for work %	More persons for direction and discussion of career interests %	General broadening by knowledge %	To have been essentially what it was %	N %
State U.	47	42	42	42	23	(203)
Fletcher	51	53	50	40	19	(150)
Latham	37	34	37	52	28	(292)
Metro	21	48	48	35	23	(188)
Reeves	9	50	33	44	17	(64)
TOTAL %	44	43	43	44	24	(897)

expect to obtain during their college educations and those which they perceive they have obtained at the conclusion of that education.

The respondents were also asked to reconsider their college experience and how they would choose to do it all again had they the opportunity. No statistically significant differences emerge between the responses of the males and those of the females, or among the various socioeconomic groups. Table 6.21 presents the response percentages according to school and sex.

We have traditionally viewed the college years as a time for exploring available career alternatives and have assumed that students have a high degree of flexibility in that choice. Data described more fully in the first secion of this chapter dealing with field of study selection indicate however that there are at least two salient factors involved in the respondent's selection of his college major and his likely subsequent employment career. First, the student's socioeconomic background has an impact upon the type of school available to him. In turn, the school influences the numbers and kinds of curricula to which the student is exposed and from which he may choose. Students in two of our schools were effectively restricted to the majors of Education and Social Sciences since their institutions either do not offer or do not encourage many other field of study alternatives. Secondly, the structure of the educational system itself resists students' attempts to change majors once they have assigned themselves into one. Field of study change often necessitates not only additional academic terms. Particularly for those students of lower socioeconomic standing, these requirements for more time and money virtually shut off the avenue of field of study change even if the student perceives that he has made an error in his original choice.

The largest percentages of students (38% of the males and 37% of the females) indicate that they would change their social experiences if they were able to go through college again. While the meaning of this response category is ambiguous and probably specific to each student, the implications of those who report into the "would change my major" category are not (18% of the males and 20% of the females). Since there is usually a direct relationship between what one studies in college and the work subsequently available, the report that one fifth of these graduating seniors wish they had made some other decision about their field of study would seem to indicate that large numbers of these young people face the job market not only with concerns and apprehensions about their skills, but with a probable preference for employment other than that for which they have prepared during their college educations.

Interesting patterns among the schools are found in the "change school" category. The two schools which reflect limited field of study alternatives and emphasize Education and the Social Sciences (Reeves and Fletcher) are the ones most likely to have students reporting this response. This finding is not surprising when it is remembered that the students at these two schools are also the least likely to report their schools as their first choice at the time of their enrollment. The school generally considered most prestigious (Latham) also has a substantial percentage of students indicating that they would prefer to go to another college or university had they the opportunity to go through college again. Latham and Fletcher have in common the fact that both are small and are located in very rural areas, keeping their student populations fairly isolated in the academic situation. Conversely, Reeves is characterized by students who commute from the large nearby metropolitan area, and hence may have little feeling of college life in the same sense that residential students do.

The other two schools (University of Metro and State University) have in common their size and the heterogeneity of their student populations. While State University is located in a rural area of central Pennslyvania, the enormity of its student body (more than 28,000 on the main campus) at least in part assures that each student will have access to a wide variety of stimuli ranging from the more formal social structures to the cultural events brought from the cities; hence, even if some facets of the college years are disappointing to the students, there are many other experiences available on these large campuses which prove rewarding to the student. The urban setting of the University of Metro also facilitates the expanded interests and activities of its student population.

Table 6.21

Sex, School, and Ways in Which Students Would Change Their College Experiences Had They the Opportunity

Schools	Wouldn't Attend		Change Major		Change Social		Do all Same		Change School		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
State U.	5	2	17	24	44	40	27	30	8	5	(202)	(294)
Fletcher	5	2	17	20	34	31	21	25	23	23	(150)	(251)
Latham	4	3	16	20	35	33	26	25	19	20	(294)	(160)
Metro	4	3	21	18	45	40	21	26	10	13	(189)	(211)
Reeves	2	4	22	15	31	43	25	21	22	18	(65)	(113)
Total %	4	2	18	20	39	36	24	26	15	16	(900)	(939)

The Curriculum

Students were asked what adjective best describes their general college curriculum. The findings indicate that there were no statistically significant differences in these replies when analyzed according to sex or socioeconomic standing. Both school and field of study variables do however significantly affect responses. Most students report that their programs have been "structured" (25% of the males and 28% of the females), "meaningful" (22% of the males and 27% of the females), and "flexible" (17% of the males and 11% of the females). The students at Fletcher and Reeves are most heavily represented in the "meaningful" and "structured" categories, while those at the other three insitutions were more evenly distributed into the four categories of "flexible," "structured," "meaningful," and "hard work." Table 6.22 presents these response percentages according to field of study, sex, and descriptive adjectives.

Interesting differences occur within the response rate of the "structured" category. Those most likely to reflect this are Health Professions, Education, Business Administration, and Engineering majors. Those less likely include Psychology, Social Sciences, Humanities, Others, and Physical Sciences. Students in four of these majors (excluding Physical Sciences) are likely to report

Table 6.22

Sex, Field of Study, and Most Important Curriculum Characteristics

	Flexible		Exciting		Structured		Fluid		Changeable		Boring		Irrelevant	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %
Business Administration	14	13	2	0	37	33	0	0	2	0	13	7	4	0
Engineering	3	0	2	0	44	0	0	0	1	0	4	0	0	0
Physical Science	20	3	1	6	14	24	1	6	7	3	1	0	4	6
Education	10	5	1	3	31	36	0	0	3	1	7	5	8	4
Health Professions	0	3	11	0	56	45	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8
Biological Science	14	7	4	4	23	20	0	2	2	2	4	2	4	2
Agriculture	43	100	43	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Psychology	21	17	4	3	15	26	2	3	8	4	8	3	2	3
Social Science	29	32	4	4	16	20	1	1	4	5	7	1	5	7
Humanities	28	20	6	9	14	9	1	1	5	5	7	2	4	5
Others	15	32	4	6	11	6	0	0	6	4	6	0	11	6
TOTAL %	18	12	3	4	25	28	0	1	4	2	6	3	5	4

Table 6.22 (cont'd)

	Meaningful		Fun		Open-ended		Hard Work		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Business Administration	19	20	2	7	1	7	7	13	(104)	(15)
Engineering	11	50	1	0	0	0	34	50	(116)	(2)
Physical Science	20	21	1	3	0	3	30	27	(71)	(34)
Education	29	30	1	2	3	2	7	14	(154)	(467)
Health Professions	33	29	0	0	0	3	0	13	(9)	(38)
Biological Science	25	18	2	0	2	2	23	40	(57)	(45)
Agriculture	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	0	(7)	(1)
Psychology	19	33	2	1	6	5	13	4	(48)	(78)
Social Science	24	20	1	0	3	4	7	7	(184)	(76)
Humanities	19	25	0	7	9	6	8	11	(86)	(113)
Others	28	21	6	4	9	4	4	15	(53)	(47)
TOTAL %	22	27	1	2	3	3	13	14	(889)	(916)

substantial numbers in the "flexible" and "meaningful" categories. The Physical Science majors are underrepresented in the "structured" response because they tend to be overrepresented in the "hard work" category, as are also the Engineering majors. Nevertheless, twenty percent (20%) of the Physical Science majors report "flexible" as the adjective most characteristic of their college curriculum.

Briefly, the profiles of their programs are described by the students as follows:

Business Administration majors are most likely to indicate their curriculum has been structured, followed by meaningful and flexible. More males report that it has been boring than females (13% versus 7%); more females report hard work has characterized their major than do males (7% versus 13%).

Engineering male majors are most likely to report their programs have been structured, followed by hard work and meaningful. Only the Engineering and Physical Science majors report large percentages in the hard work category.

The largest group of Physical Science majors report that their major curricula have been structured and meaningful. The males are more likely to report that it has been flexible (10% males; 5% females); the females are more likely to have seen their curricula as hard work (14% females; 7% males). The Education majors report the largest percentages of those who perceive their programs as having been either irrelevant or boring. Fifteen percent (15%) of the males and nine percent (9%) of the females reported this opinion.

The Health Profession majors cluster almost entirely into two categories, structured and meaningful.

The males of the Biological Sciences differ somewhat from the females in that they are fairly evenly distributed in the structured, meaningful, and hard work categories. The females are most likely to report hard work, followed by structured, and meaningful.

While there are only nine Agriculture majors, almost all of them report either flexible or exciting as the number one characteristic of their curricula.

Psychology majors reflect variations between the sexes in their perception of their programs. The males report flexible, meaningful, structured, and hard work in that order and with relatively small percentage differences among them. The females also cluster in these adjective categories, with meaningful most frequently reported, followed by structured and flexible.

The Social Science and the Humanities majors are the only students who list their programs as being flexible more frequently than any other description. In both cases, they also report meaningful and structured in relatively large percentages. While the frequencies are still low, it is interesting to note that the Psychology, Social Sciences, Humanities, and Others majors are virtually the only students found in the categories of exciting, changeable, and open-ended. They also constitute more than most majors in the reports of boring or irrelevant.

The Others majors who are in most ways similar to the Psychology, Social

Sciences, and Humanities majors (See chapter 2 for a fuller description of these majors) reflect interesting differences between the sexes. The males are most likely to indicate their programs have been meaningful, followed by flexible. They constitute the largest field of study percentage found in the irrelevant category (11%). The females most frequently report flexible, followed by meaningful and hard work.

It can be seen from Table 6.22 and the findings described above that the ways in which students perceive their college curricula differ according to the major in which the student is enrolled. Most students report that their programs are meaningful and structured. Virtually none of them find it fun.

Our respondents were additionally asked what are the two areas or aspects of college life from which they feel they have gained the most. Table 6.23 indicates the percentage frequencies with which the various categories are reported.

The most popular category, "self-growth" is reported slightly more frequently among the females than males. It is one of two categories in this question in which one sex consistently scored above the other (males also consistently report higher percentages in "extracurricular activities"). Although there is a slight tendency for the Reeves sample to be low in this response (32% of the males; 35% of the females) and the Latham students to be high (41% of the males; 43% of the females), the differences between the schools are slight.

The other two category responses which are reported frequently are "specific curriculum involving a field of interest which I have selected" and "individual courses which have been interesting and meaningful to me." Both of the schools which stress the Education major (Fletcher and Reeves) are high in their indication of the specific curriculum as having been very important to them. This finding is not surprising given the structured nature of the credentials necessary for the teaching profession and the fact that these two schools are geared toward the production of teachers. Reference to the individual courses they have taken is reported by between one-fifth and one-quarter of all the students with virtually no differentiation among the schools.

When analyzed according to majors, the students most likely to report "self-growth" in the high percentages are those males in Business Administration (41%), Psychology (46%), Social Sciences (40%), Humanities (40%), and Others (40%); and females in Humanities (45%), Social Sciences (44%), Psychology (42%), and the Health Professions (42%). Those females most likely to indicate "specific curriculum" are the Education majors (36%) and the Health Professions majors (56%); for the males, the Engineers (47%), Biological Sciences (39%), Agriculture (38%), and Health Professions (44%) indicate this response more than males in other majors.

These findings are as expected. Those students whose majors are themselves structured tend to see their program curriculum as having been particularly significant to them. Examples of these students are the Education and Health Professions majors. Conversely, students enrolled in majors which do not have a highly structured curriculum tend to emphasize the more personal aspects of college learning, e.g. "self-growth." The students who report thusly are most frequently found in the majors of Psychology, Social Sciences, Humanities, and Others.

Table 6.23

School, Sex, and Collapsed 1st and 2nd Choice
of Most Profitable Aspects of the College Experience

	Specific Curriculum		Individual Courses		Model Individuals		Helpful Individuals		Social Groups		University Community		Extra-Curricular Activities		Growth		Other	
School	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %
State U.	16	25	19	21	3	4	3	4	4	4	8	8	6	4	39	40	2	2
Fletcher	18	37	26	22	5	6	2	4	5	3	5	3	5	2	34	39	0	1
Latham	10	15	18	23	5	6	4	4	4	3	6	6	8	4	41	43	4	5
Metro	13	27	24	24	6	2	3	2	3	2	4	8	9	3	35	41	3	3
Reeves	27	42	26	27	7	3	3	3	0	4	0	0	5	4	32	35	0	0
TOTAL %	15	17	21	23	5	4	3	3	3	3	6	5	8	3	37	40	2	2

Female responses are not affected by the SES factor, however those of the males appear to be. The higher the SES of a male, the more likely he is to report an emphasis on self-growth (34% of the very-low compared with 40% of the very-high group). Conversely, the lower the student's SES, the more likely he is to stress the specific curriculum, such that 32% of the very-low SES males compared with 21% of the very-high make this response. Since we know that SES and field of study are related, these results support the findings that male students in the Business Administration and Psychology majors are those with the highest SES and the most likely to report "self-growth"; those males in Education, who have generally low SES, more frequently stress specific curriculum.

Students of the lower SES groups (and females) select those college majors which lead to specific jobs (such as Education and the Health Professions) and hence, necessitate relatively well-defined and sequenced field of study curricula At the end of their college experience these students tend to emphasize the skill-acquisition aspects of their training. Conversely, students of higher socioeconomic levels apparently do not enter nor progress through their college years with the same concentration upon obtaining specific job requirements. They select majors which reflect both more flexibility in curriculum and more varied post-graduation alternatives. Those students are more likely to see their college experiences as a time for exposure to ideas, self-growth, and eventual career decisions.

On Leaving College

Our sample students were asked the open-ended question, "In the space below, describe your feelings about leaving college and the concerns you have about the next several years of your life." Responses tend to fall into a dichotomy reflecting on the one hand an eagerness and pleasure to be making the transition into post-college status, and on the other hand an apprehension and reluctance to take this step beyond graduation Table 6.24 describes the response percentage distributions according to sex and school.

It can be seen that the largest percentage of these students indicate at least some distinctly positive feelings about leaving school (60% of the males and 71% of the females make responses that fall into at least one of the first three categories). Differences occur among the schools, with the Latham males the least likely to fall into one of these three categories (only 49% of the Latham males indicate any of these generally positive responses compared with the 73% of the Latham females).

This discrepancy between the Latham males and the other groups is in part a reflection of the question wording itself. Substantial percentages of the students (16% of the males and 7% of the females) responded only to the "describe your feelings about leaving college" phrase in the question and report that they do not perceive that they are in fact leaving college due to their plans for continuing on to graduate school. Both the Reeves and the Latham males report high percentages in the going-to-graduate-school category (22% of the Reeves males and 23% of the Latham males).

Two of the response categories reflect anxiety levels about leaving college and applying job skills in the employment situation. As other data have suggested, the females in the study are more likely to report into one of these apprehension categories than are the males, in spite of the fact that they tend

Table 6.24

School, Sex, and Concerns Upon Leaving College
(Multiple responses possible; percentages do not sum to 100.)

School	Pleased Ambiguous		Eager to Start Adult Life		Tired of Classwork		Hesitant Ambiguous		Apprehensive - Leaving College	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %
State U.	8	10	50	49	6	7	7	8	11	26
Fletcher	13	12	51	55	9	13	10	11	14	17
Latham	12	10	34	44	3	19	4	5	16	33
Metro	11	15	37	41	13	16	5	6	20	26
Reeves	12	10	42	45	8	7	3	4	2	9
TOTAL %	11	12	42	47	7	12	6	8	14	23

	Mixed Feelings Unsure		Apprehensive About Job Skills		Plans of Graduate School		Other		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
State U.	7	8	16	21	11	7	3	2	(204)	(204)
Fletcher	3	4	15	17	10	6	1	1	(151)	(256)
Latham	8	5	10	29	23	8	3	1	(297)	(161)
Metro	3	5	25	26	13	9	3	2	(191)	(213)
Reeves	3	8	5	12	22	7	0	1	(65)	(116)
TOTAL %	6	6	14	21	16	7	3	1	(908)	(950)

to report earlier college major closure (and hence, theoretically, more sureness of the jobs they will eventually seek) and that the majors they are most likely to indicate (particularly Education) tend to have definitive job requirements which their undergraduate degrees fulfill. It is apparent that these students do not perceive that the skills (either social or occupational) which they have acquired in college as adequate to overcome the scarcities and barriers in the society, particularly in the job market.

Analysis of the responses to this question along the different college majors indicates that the females most likely to report apprehensions about applying job skills are those in the Humanities, Biological Sciences, and Social Sciences; those least likely to make such a response are in the Health Professions. The Education majors fall near the average in their responses to this category in spite of the publicity about the scarcity of teaching positions normally occupied by women (elementary education).

The socioeconomic factor plays a significant role for men in the frequencies with which they indicate apprehensions about using their job skills. The two lowest SES groups are more likely to report these concerns (15% of the very-low; 21% of the mid-low) than are the two upper groups (11% of the mid-high; 12% of the very-high). This finding is not surprising since the more affluent base of the two upper SES groups allows these students access to the majors requiring advanced degree training (and eventual higher earnings). It is feasible that their higher SES also exposes them to a greater variety of employment opportunities and alternatives outside of those for which they have been trained in college.

CHAPTER 7

ETHNICITY-RELIGIOUSITY - SOME SELECTIVE EXPLORATIONS

During the past several years there has been a growing interest in the impact of ethnic background upon attitudes and behavior. With few exceptions, social scientists generally have treated the ethnic variable as a demographic factor, and not as a social-psychological variable. More recently however, Andrew Greeley of The National Opinion Research Center has, through a variety of survey research efforts, made an impressive case for the need for more detailed investigations of how ethnic background functions as a salient agent in the expressed attitudes and behaviors of individuals. Greeley's work suggests that one's ethnic identity as well as one's religious affiliation play a part in perceptions of self and of others. The data provided by Greeley and his associates as well as the data obtained in this research would certainly support the view that ethnic-religious variables are somehow an integral part of the socialization process.

We can only say that ethnic-religious variables are "somehow" a part of the socialization process because our own research does not really indicate how these variables take hold. Our research instruments were not designed to identify the events which lead to individual recognition or internalization of specific or vague ethnic characteristics or attitudes. We are unable to identify the time periods in which individuals are made aware of their ethnic or religious origins. We are unable to say anything about the degree of ethnicity or religiousity felt by our respondents. What we can say is that when we control for the ethnic-religious backgrounds of these paritcipants, we find dramatic and significant differences. In many instances these differences are far greater than those found when we control for social class, sex, or field of study in this sample of graduating seniors.

In all candor, our concern with ethnic factors represents a "fishing expedition." Our initial design did not include the collecting of ethnic background data beyond demographic information which would allow the making of comparisons between whites and non-whites; or the collecting of religion variables beyond those which would allow comparisons between Jews, Catholics, and Protestants. We planned to collect data dealing with original and current religious affiliations for two reasons. First, we wanted to make some comparisons between our sample and the student sample studied by James Davis in 1961. Our thinking was that defection from one's religion represents one type of alienation, and a comparison would enable us to say something about changes in the attitudes of graduating college seniors over the eleven year time span. Second, we were interested in studying the relationship between current religious affiliation and expressed work-related attitudes.

Our decision to include a question dealing with ethnic background was influenced by several papers authored by Greeley and his associates dealing with ethnicity, career goals, and life style views; and by our pre-test phase in which we interviewed 150 graduating college seniors. During the course of these interviews it became apparent that variables other than those which were expected (such as sex, socioeconomic status, race, and field of study) were in operation.

We find and are not surprised to find, that lower SES youth are more likely than more affluent youth to stress the importance of economic security when talking about career dimensions; that women are fairly heavily concentrated in a select group of academic majors; that Black students are heavily concentrated in the lowest socioeconomic groups; and that Jewish students are comparatively high in expectations of entering graduate or professional school. We are, however, surprised to find differences among females of a similar SES group in the same field of study in the expressed attitudes toward sex roles, career values, and life style preferences. For example, from the personal interviews we observed that Irish Catholic and Italian Catholic women differ from one another in how they view themselves and their futures. Differences in political views and career aspirations of males of similar SES backgrounds also appear to reflect ethnic and religious influences.

The ethnic research of The National Opinion Research Center and information obtained during our pre-test phase led to the questionnaire inclusion of the item specifying ethnic background. Respondents were asked to "Specify your national or ethnic background in the space below. For example, 'Italian-American,' 'Polish-American,' 'Russian-American,' 'Irish-American,' etc."

We did not ask any other questions concerning ethnic background, and therefore have no data on degree of ethnic affiliation, the importance of ethnic background to the students, or the areas in which ethnic backgrounds take on importance for the respondents. When data from the ethnic, racial, and religious questions are analyzed together, the following ethnic-religious-racial groups are formed:

Group	N
Anglo-Saxon-Protestant	177
German-Protestant	283
Scandinavian-Protestant	21
Slavic-Protestant	21
Irish-Catholic	73
German-Catholic	64
Italian-Catholic	111
Polish-Catholic	60
Slavic-Catholic	72
Jewish	96
Black	176
No Religion	472

Prior to a discussion of the relationships found between ethnic-religion orientation and several dependent variables, it is important to note certain methodologically-related explanations of our data processing and analyzing.

We have not sorted Blacks by religious affiliation because with very few exceptions, they are in one of the Protestant denominations. Very few of the Black students report a defection from their original religion; hence, a disproportionate majority of those students who report no current religious affiliation are whites.

In Chapter 2 of this report we point out the original religious identification of those who now select the No Religion category. We have not attempted to analyze in depth the No Religion group by ethnic background for two reasons. First, our preliminary findings indicate that the ethnic background of these particular students is not as salient a variable as is their current religious orientation. In other words, ethnic background for this group of students is not as good a predictor of attitudes and values as is their No Religion orientation. Second, breaking down the No Religion group by ethnic background would leave us with samples so small that even tentative analysis based on statistical procedures would have been impossible.

It is also important to point out that what follows are a series of data presentations. Our purpose is to do nothing more than point out certain relationships we have found between ethnic-religious background and some variables. We believe that these findings support those who take the position that ethnic-religious orientation and identification are salient variables for research in these areas. There is wide diversity among American youth, and ethnic-religious factors appear to contribute in some important ways to the expectations, aspirations, and work values of American college seniors.

As can be seen in the ethnic-religious distribution presented earlier, most students did respond to the ethnic identity question. Those not included in this analysis are students who did not answer the question, those who responded "don't know," and those who responded with a mixture of ethnic affiliations such as "one-tenth Polish, one-tenth Irish, one-tenth Italian."

The first data presented deals with sex, ethnic-religious identification, and socioeconomic status.

Table 7.1 shows once again that female respondents are generally of lower SES backgrounds than are males. The two exceptions are found among Black students, where women are very slightly more likely to be from the two higher SES groups (a difference of 2% in each group), and the students of the No Religion group, where there is no difference.

Males and females usually hold similar positions when comparisons are made among the various ethnic-religious groups. For both men and women the more affluent students are either Jewish or Scandinavian-Protestants, followed by Anglo-Saxon-Protestants, those of No Religion, and German-Protestants. For both sexes the least affluent groups are Blacks and Polish-Catholics. Other Catholics generally fall into the middle between Jews and Protestants, and Blacks.

Variations among the different ethnic-religious groups are certainly significant and quite impressive when it is recalled that the graduating college seniors are usually seen as a fairly homogeneous group of young people.

The political attitudes of students also show significant differences when there is control for ethnic-religious affiliation. In an earlier chapter we noted that both sex and SES are associated with variations in political attitudes. Women tend to be more conservative than males. Students of higher SES backgrounds tend to be more liberal in their political positions. In summary, analysis of SES, sex, and political posture shows the following:

> For males the greatest range of difference is found among those who select the Liberal political alternative. The range is twelve percent

Table 7.1

Sex, SES, and Ethnic-Religious Identification

Ethnic-Religious Group	% in Mid-High and Very-High SES Groups			
	M		F	
	%	N	%	N
Anglo-Saxon-Protestant	67	(79)	58	(90)
German-Protestant	51	(126)	53	(152)
Slavic-Protestant	38	(13)	13	(8)*
Scandinavian-Protestant	71	(7)*	62	(13)
Irish-Catholic	50	(30)	34	(41)
German-Catholic	39	(31)	37	(32)
Italian-Catholic	38	(52)	34	(57)
Polish-Catholic	24	(33)	23	(26)
Slavic-Catholic	41	(29)	29	(41)
Jewish	73	(51)	60	(35)
Black	15	(46)	17	(113)
No Religion	56	(254)	56	(201)

* Sample size prohibits statistical analysis

(12%), with forty-one percent (41%) of the very-high SES and twenty-nine percent (29%) of the very-low SES selecting the Liberal category.

For females the greatest range of difference is ten percent (10%). Again, this largest variation is found among those selecting the Liberal political orientation, with thirty-six percent (36%) of the very-high SES and twenty-six percent (26%) of the mid-high SES women indicating this political attitude.

As can be seen in Table 7.2 the differences produced by ethnic-religious affiliation are far greater than those observed when there is control for SES. Table 7.2 also indicates that there are a number of interesting differences between men and women of similar ethnic-religious backgrounds.

Most students fall into either the Moderate or Liberal political groups. With some ethnic-religious groups however, there are disportionately large numbers of students who say they have no one single political orientation. Black women are highest (39%) of all students in selecting this alternative, followed by Polish-Catholic women and Anglo-Saxon-Protestant women. Males who are in the No Religion group are highest in holding no one single political orientation, followed by Black and German-Catholic men.

Radical Left is selected most frequently by Black men (15%), No Religion men (12%), Polish-Catholic men (9%), and No Religion women (8%). The largest proportion of Conservatives are found among Polish-Catholic males (18%), German-Protestant males (16%), and German-Catholic females (16%). The Moderate political posture is most frequently indicated by Anglo-Saxon-Protestant males (42%), Irish-Catholic males (40%), German-Catholic males (38%), and Slavic-Catholic males (38%), and by Italian-Catholic females (39%) and Polish-Catholic females (38%).

For each political category the range of ethnic-religious differences are as follows:

Conservative

Males: (9% of male sample)
Highest: Polish-Catholics (18%)
Lowest: Blacks (2%)

Females: (9% of female sample)
Highest: German-Catholics (16%)
Lowest: No Religion (3%)

Moderate

Males: (28% of male sample)
Highest: Anglo-Saxon-Protestants (42%)
Lowest: Blacks (12%)

Females: (29% of female sample)
Highest: Italian-Catholics (39%)
Lowest: No Religion (14%)

Liberal

Males: (38% of male sample)
Highest: Jews (50%)
Lowest: German-Catholics (23%)

Females: (36% of female sample)
Highest: Irish-Catholics (53%)
Lowest: Anglo-Saxon-Protestants (19%)

Radical Left

Males: (6% of male sample)
Highest: Blacks (15%)
Lowest: German-Protestants (0%)
Irish-Catholics (0%)

Females: (5% of female sample)
Highest: No Religion (8%)
Lowest: Anglo-Saxon-Protestants, German-Protestants, Irish-Catholics, German-Catholics, Italian-Catholics, Polish-Catholics, Slavic-Catholics (all 0%)

Table 7.2

Sex, Ethnic-Religious Groups, and Political Attitudes

Ethnic-Religious Group	Conservative		Moderate		Liberal		Left		Attitude		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M	F
Anglo-Saxon-Protestant	12	13	42	36	30	19	1	0	13	31	(77)	(88)
German-Protestant	16	14	37	36	27	24	0	0	20	26	(125)	(146)
Irish-Catholic	3	5	40	30	43	53	0	0	13	12	(30)	(40)
German-Catholic	10	16	38	32	23	32	3	0	26	19	(31)	(31)
Italian-Catholic	6	13	29	39	37	21	6	0	22	25	(51)	(56)
Polish-Catholic	18	4	30	38	24	23	9	0	18	35	(33)	(26)
Slavic-Catholic	14	13	38	32	24	26	3	0	17	29	(29)	(29)
Jewish	4	9	23	21	50	47	4	5	15	18	(48)	(34)
Black	2	10	12	18	39	25	15	6	27	39	(41)	(102)
No Religion	5	3	13	14	40	47	12	8	29	25	(252)	(194)

Differences in ethnic-religious affiliation appear to also be related to significant differences in sex role orientation. Other data in this report indicate that both sex and SES are associated with respondents' attitudes toward the roles of women in our society. Women more so than men hold more non-traditional views; both males and females of the very-high SES group are more likely to reject traditional sex roles for women than are respondents of the other SES groups.

In Table 7.3 the proportion of men and women in each ethnic-religious group who endorse less traditional views are presented (see Chapter 1 for a complete description of the measurement of traditionality.) The column percentages indicate that women are much more likely to hold less traditional role expectations than are men. In only one case is there no difference between men and women. The same percentage (57%) of Black women and Black men endorse the less traditional sex role view. As we pointed out in other portions of this report, many of the Black women in our sample anticipate or at least prefer to pursue what we have come to identify as conventional, middle-class lives. Such is particularly the case for Black women, who come from father-absent families. The data suggest that women, particularly Black women, who come from homes where the mother worked or where the mother was primarily responsible for the support of the family, are more likely to indicate a preference for a traditional conjugal family life style. The opposite seems to be the case for Black males. Black males who come from father-absent homes are more likely to endorse a less traditional role for women.

The ethnic-religious variations in responses to perceived appropriate sex role behaviors seem to reflect the same patterns as the political veiws of respondents. That is, those ethnic-religious groups generally highest on being politically Liberal or Radical Left are generally highest in showing a preference for less traditional sex roles. Jewish males, No Religion males, and Black males are highest in acceptance of less traditional sex roles, and among the males are the most likely to select the Liberal or Radical Left political posture. German-Catholic males are most rejecting of the less traditional sex role view (16%) and lowest of all males on selecting the Liberal political affiliation. Jewish and No Religion women are highest on less traditionalism and high on political Liberalism. Similarly, Irish-Catholic women tend to be high on less traditional sex role orientation, and are high on political Liberalism. The widest range of discrepance between men and women of similar ethnic-religious orientations are found among Irish-Catholics (30%), German-Catholics (37%), Anglo-Saxon-Protestants (35%), and German-Protestants (33%). The least variation is found among Blacks (no differences), Jews (16%), and Slavic-Catholics (19%).

Reasons for attending college also vary widely among the different ethnic-religious groups. Chapter 6 presents data on the relationships of sex and SES to the variations found in reasons which students give for enrolling in college. We find that women, more so than men, give "job training" as their primary reason for college attendance. Women are also somewhat more likely than men to endorse the desire for "knowledge." Men are more likely than women to cite "wanting a degree" and that college attendance was always assumed as the "only possibility considered."

For both sexes the higher the SES background, the lower the selection of "job training" and the higher the selection of "only possibility considered." The lower the SES, the greater the selection of "job training."

Table 7.3

Sex, Ethnic-Religious Identification, and Sex Role Attitudes

Ethnic-Religious Group	% in "Less Traditional" Group			
	M %	N	F %	N
Anglo-Saxon-Protestant	33	(79)	68	(98)
German-Protestant	28	(126)	61	(152)
Slavic-Protestant	23	(13)	-	(8)*
Scandinavian-Protestant	-	(7)*	77	(13)
Irish-Catholic	43	(30)	73	(41)
German-Catholic	16	(31)	53	(32)
Italian-Catholic	33	(52)	54	(57)
Polish-Catholic	48	(33)	77	(26)
Slavic-Catholic	28	(29)	47	(19)
Jewish	73	(51)	89	(35)
Black	57	(46)	57	(106)
No Religion	65	(254)	86	(201)

* Sample size prohibits statistical analysis

The following ethnic-religious differences emerge in the four items most frequently cited by respondents as their reasons for going to college.

Job Training

	Males: (36% of male sample)		Females: (39% of female sample)
Highest:	Polish-Catholics (64%) Slavic-Catholics (52%) Italian-Catholics (45%) German-Catholics (45%)	Highest:	German-Catholics (50%) Italian-Catholics (49%) German-Protestants (46%)
Lowest:	No Religion (22%) Jews (30%) Blacks (30%)	Lowest:	No Religion (28%) Jews (32%)

Only Possibility

	Males: (23% of male sample)		Females: (21% of female sample)
Highest:	Jews (38%) No Religion (31%)	Highest:	Jews (41%) Polish-Catholics (29%)
Lowest:	Polish-Catholics (9%) German-Catholics (10%) Blacks (11%) Italian-Catholics (12%)	Lowest:	Blacks (12%) Italian-Catholics (12%) Slavic-Catholics (15%)

Wanted Degree

	Males: (15% of male sample)		Females: (11% of female sample)
Highest:	German-Catholics (32%) Slavic-Catholics (21%)	Highest:	Blacks (19%) Slavic-Protestants (15%)
Lowest:	Jews (4%) Polish-Catholics (6%)	Lowest:	Irish-Catholics (2%) Jews (6%)

Increase Knowledge

	Males: (12% of male sample)		Females: (17% of female sample)
Highest:	Blacks (28%)	Highest:	No Religion (25%) Blacks (19%) Italian-Catholics (19%)
Lowest:	Slavic-Catholics (0%) Anglo-Saxon-Protestants (5%) German-Catholics (6%)	Lowest:	Irish-Catholics (7%) Anglo-Saxon-Protestants (11%)

The frequencies with which these four reasons are endorsed by men and women are quite similar. Both groups place the greatest emphasis upon "job training," followed by "only possibility considered." The women were somewhat more inclined to select the "increase knowledge" item (17% of the women and 12% of the men) while men were a little higher on the "wanted a college degree" reason (15% of the men and 11% of the women.)

Ethnic-religious differences indicate that social class alone does not explain the observed variation in reasons given for college enrollment. Although, as noted earlier, lower SES students choose "job training" more often than do higher SES students, we find that Black males (the group with the highest proportion of lower SES students) are no different in their responses to this reason than are Jewish males (the group with the highest proportion of higher SES students.) It is also of interest to note that those with No Religion responses are lowest in selecting this item even though their overall SES status is not among the very-highest or the very-lowest. For males, all of the Catholic groups rank high on this "job training" item, with Protestants falling in the middle and those of No Religion, Jews, and Blacks least likely to select this item.

Similarly, SES does not appear to be the most productive variable in explaining the differences in the reasons women give for attending college. Again, those of No Religion and Jews are lowest in stating "job training." Unlike Polish-Catholic males, Polish-Catholic females are low in their indication of this reason; German-Protestant women are high in its selection.

The second most frequently given reason is "never considered any other possibility." For both men and women this item is most frequently selected by Jews. Polish-Catholic women again show a pattern in contrast to Polish-Catholic men (31% of the women and only 9% of the men selected this item.) Irish-Catholic women are twice as likely as Irish-Catholic men to give this reason even though the men report more affluent family backgrounds.

The "pursuit of knowledge" is selected most frequently by Black males, and by No Religion, Black, and Italian-Catholic women; it is least selected by Slavic-Catholic males, male and female Anglo-Saxon-Protestants, German-Catholic men, and Irish-Catholic women. German-Catholic men, Slavic-Catholics, and Black women are those who most frequently select "wanted a college degree" as their major reason for attending college. Male and female Jews, Irish-Catholic women, and Polish-Catholic men are lowest in reporting this reason.

Table 7.4 illustrates the fields of study of students from the different ethnic-religious groups. As noted in other portions of the report, sex and SES contribute significantly to the academic major in which a student finds himself. The breakdown by ethnic-religious affiliation provides yet another dimension with which to view student distribution in the various fields of study.

Summarizing the frequency distributions shown in Table 7.4, the following extremes emerge:

Business Administration

	Males: (11% of the male sample)		Females: (2% of the female sample)
Highest:	Slavic-Catholics (23%) Jews (18%)	Highest:	German-Catholics (12%)
Lowest:	Blacks (0%) Slavic-Protestants (0%) Polish-Catholics (3%) German-Catholics (3%)	Lowest:	Scandinavian-Protestants, Irish-Catholics, Italian-Catholics, Polish-Catholics, Slavic-Catholics, and Blacks (0%)

Table 7.4

Sex, Ethnic-Religious Group, and Field of Study

Ethnic-Religious Group	Business Administration M %	Business Administration F %	Engineering M %	Engineering F %	Physical Science M %	Physical Science F %	Education M %	Education F %	Health Professions M %	Health Professions F %	Biological Science M %	Biological Science F %
Anglo-Saxon-Protestant	15	2	22	-	6	2	27	50	-	7	6	3
German-Protestant	13	1	22	-	8	6	22	66	1	1	10	3
Irish-Catholic	7	-	14	-	10	10	17	32	3	12	3	2
Slavic-Protestant	-	-	15	-	8	-	8	54	8	8	15	8
German-Catholic	3	12	16	-	16	-	19	43	3	9	6	-
Italian-Catholic	8	-	11	-	8	5	25	53	6	4	6	7

	Agriculture M %	Agriculture F %	Psychology M %	Psychology F %	Science M %	Science F %	Humanities M %	Humanities F %	Other M %	Other F %	N M	N F
Anglo-Saxon-Protestant	-	1	2	7	9	8	8	15	5	5	(79)	(88)
German-Protestant	1	-	-	8	13	5	7	8	3	2	(125)	(152)
Irish-Catholic	-	-	7	7	10	19	24	10	5	8	(29)	(41)
Slavic-Protestant	-	-	-	23	31	-	8	-	7	7	(13)	(13)
German-Catholic	3	-	10	6	19	9	3	16	2	5	(31)	(32)
Italian-Catholic	-	-	4	7	29	4	3	9	-	11	(52)	(55)

Table 7.4 (cont'd)

Ethnic-Religious Group	Business Administration		Engineering		Physical Science		Education		Health Professions		Biological Science	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %
Polish-Catholic	3	-	24	-	9	4	15	35	-	19	9	11
Slavic-Catholic	23	-	13	-	16	7	6	56	3	10	6	2
Jewish	18	3	2	3	2	3	2	32	-	3	16	-
Black	-	-	2	-	11	-	52	80	-	1	-	3
No Religion	11	2	8	-	6	4	12	30	-	2	5	8

	Agriculture		Psychology		Social Science		Humanities		Other		N	
	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F %	M %	F	M	F
Polish-Catholic	3	-	9	8	18	4	9	8	1	11	(33)	(26)
Slavic-Catholic	3	-	6	10	19	5	-	7	5	3	(31)	(41)
Jewish	-	-	18	18	23	12	10	15	9	11	(51)	(34)
Black	-	-	-	-	30	12	4	3	1	-	(46)	(112)
No Religion	1	-	8	14	22	11	15	21	12	8	(253)	(199)

Engineering

Males:	(13% of the male sample)	Females:	too few cases for analysis (N = 2)
Highest:	Polish-Catholics (24%) Anglo-Saxon Protestants (22%) German-Protestants (22%)		
Lowest:	Blacks (2%) Jews (2%) No Religion (8%)		

Physical Science

Males:	(8% of the male sample)	Females:	(4% of the female sample)
Highest:	German-Catholics (16%) Slavic-Catholics (16%)	Highest:	Irish-Catholics (10%)
Lowest:	Jews (2%) Anglo-Saxon-Protestants (6%) No Religion (6%)	Lowest:	Blacks (0%) Slavic Protestants (0%) German-Catholics (0%)

Education

Males:	(18% of the male sample)	Females:	(50% of the female sample)
Highest:	Blacks (52%) Anglo-Saxon-Protestants (27%) Italian-Catholics (25%)	Highest:	Blacks (80%) German-Protestants (66%)
Lowest:	Jews (2%) Slavic-Catholics (6%)	Lowest:	Irish-Catholics (32%) No Religion (30%) Jews (32%)

Health Professions

Males:	(1% of the male sample)	Females:	(4% of the female sample)
Highest:	Slavic-Protestants (8%)	Highest:	Polish-Catholics (19%) Irish-Catholics (12%)
Lowest:	Anglo-Saxon-Protestants, Blacks, No Religion, Polish-Catholics, Jews (all 0%)	Lowest:	Blacks (1%) German-Protestants (1%)

Biological Science

Males:	(7% of the male sample)	Females:	(5% of the female sample)
Highest:	Jews (16%) Slavic-Protestants (15%)	Highest:	Polish-Catholics (11%)
Lowest:	Blacks (0%) Irish-Catholics (3%)	Lowest:	Jews (0%) German-Catholics (0%)

Psychology

Males:	(6% of the male sample)	Females:	(9% of the female sample)
Highest:	Jews (18%) German-Catholics (10%)	Highest:	Slavic-Protestants (23%) Jews (18%) No Religion (14%)
Lowest:	Blacks (0%) German-Protestants (0%) Slavic-Protestants (0%)	Lowest:	Blacks (0%)

Social Science

Males:	(19% of the male sample)	Females:	(9% of the female sample)
Highest:	Slavic-Protestants (31%) Blacks (30%) Italian-Catholics (29%)	Highest:	Irish-Catholics (19%)
Lowest:	Anglo-Saxon-Protestants (9%) Irish-Catholics (10%)	Lowest:	Slavic-Protestants (0%) Italian-Catholics (4%) Polish-Catholics (4%)

Humanities

Males:	(10% of the male sample)	Females:	(12% of the female sample)
Highest:	Irish-Catholics (24%) No Religion (15%)	Highest:	No Religion (21%) German-Catholics (16%)
Lowest:	Slavic-Catholics (0%) German-Catholics (3%) Italian-Catholics (3%)	Lowest:	Slavic-Protestants (0%) Blacks (3%)

Others

Males:	(6% of the males sample)	Females:	(5% of the female sample)
Highest:	No Religion (12%) Jews (9%)	Highest:	Jews (11%) Italian-Catholics (11%) Polish-Catholics (11%)
Lowest:	Italian-Catholics (0%) Polish-Catholics (1%) Blacks (1%)	Lowest:	Blacks (0%)

Two indices, one dealing with personality characteristics and the other with work-attitude orientations, are helpful in adding yet another dimension to the ethnic-religious picture. The reader will recall that these same indices are used in other places throughout this report. Again, the methodology employed is based upon a scoring range. Plus three (+3) is the highest positive score and minus three (-3) is the highest negative score. (See Chapter 1 for a complete description of the development of the index.)

Listed below are the six work-attitude orientation factors developed for this report. Each presents both the highest positive and highest negative scores of the various ethnic-religious groups.

Success oriented through hard work

Highest +: male and female German-Protestants (+3)
Highest -: male and female No Religion (-3)

A job is not a way of life - just a way to make money

Highest +: Irish-Catholic females (+2)
Highest -: Anglo-Saxon-Protestant females (-2)

Worried about job being boring and uncreative

Highest +: No Religion males (+3) and No Religion females (+2)
Highest -: Anglo-Saxon-Protestant males (-2) and Jewish males (-2)

Private life is more important than job; unmaterialistic; anti-business

Highest +: No Religion males and females (+1)
Highest -: Black males and females (-1)

Worried about the job setting

Highest +: No Religion males and females (+2) and Irish-Catholic females (+2)
Highest -: Black males and females (-2)

I like to work - working will make me a better person

Highest +: German-Protestant males and females (+2) and Anglo-Saxon-Protestant males (+2)
Highest -: Jewish males (-2) and No Religion males and females (-2)

In summary, the traditional Protestant work ethic seems to be most expressive of German-Protestants and least reflective of the orientation of those who say they have no current religion.

Irish-Catholic women are more likely than all others to see work as a means of earning money and not an integral part of one's way of life. Anglo-Saxon-Protestant women are most rejecting of the view that work is primarily a means for accumulating money. The greatest expressed concern over the more intrinsic aspects of one's work comes from those who report No Religion. Participants indicating that they presently have No Religion are more likely than other groups to be "unmaterialistic; anti-business" and to feel that their private lives are more important than a job.

Male Jews and Anglo-Saxon-Protestants show the least concern about their work being either boring or uncreative. Irish-Catholic women, and men and women of No Religion status, express the greatest concern over the job setting. Different reasons seem to influence the concern of the two groups. Data on fields of study, employment concerns and salary expectations, apprehensions about leaving college, and work-attitude orientations would all seem to suggest that the Irish-Catholic women are concerned about avoiding job settings which do not provide sufficient financial rewards, while those of No Religion are concerned about avoiding work settings which do not provide opportunities for originality, creativity, and individual expression.

German-Protestants and male Anglo-Saxon-Protestants score highest in the work-attitude orientation which embraces work and sees work as a means for making oneself a better person., For the German-Protestants and the Anglo-Saxon-Protestants, we see this affirmation of the importance of work as an expected reaction and the result of the internalization of the traditional work ethic.

The personality characteristic scores also provide some insight as to how youth of different ethnic-religious groups see themselves. Once again we will summarize our data by presenting the contrasts within each of the eight personality characteristics sets.

Practical, logical, cautious

Highest +: German-Catholic males (+2), Italian-Catholic males (+2) and Black females (+2)
Highest -: No Religion males (-2) and Jewish females (-2)

Hostile, alienated, unhappy

Highest +: No Religion males (+2) and No Religion females (+3)
Highest -: Anglo-Saxon-Protestant males and females (-2), German-Protestant females (-2), Irish-Catholic males (-2), and Italian-Catholic women (-2)

Ambitious, aggressive, a leader

Highest +: Anglo-Saxon-Protestant males (+2), Italian-Catholic males (+2), Black males and females (+2)
Highest -: No Religion males and females (-3)

Analytical, insightful, intellectual

Highest +: No Religion males and females (+3)
Highest -: German-Protestant males (-3)

Secure, confident, happy

Highest +: Anglo-Saxon-Protestant males (+2) and Black women (+2)
Highest -: No Religion males (-2)

Easy-going, fun loving, athletic

There is little variation among groups except for the negative score (-2) of the No Religion males.

Moral, religious, honest

Highest +: German-Protestant males (+3), German-Catholic males and females (+3), Italian-Catholic females (+3), and Polish Catholic males (+3)
Highest -: No Religion males and females (-3)

Beautiful, loving thoughtful

Highest +: Black males and females (+3)
Highest -: Anglo-Saxon-Protestant males (-3)

In most instances the greatest contrasts are found between those of No Religion and all other groups. At the same time there are dramatic and interesting differences between men and women and among those of all other ethnic-religious orientations. For example, Irish-Catholic women score higher than Irish-Catholic males in the factor "moral, religious, honest" (scores of +1 for the males and +2 for the females.). Irish-Catholic women are less likely than Irish-Catholic men to see themselves as "analytical, insightful, intellectual" (males score -1 and females score -2); and also less likely to see themselves as "beautiful, loving, thoughtful" (score of -1 for males and -2 for females.)

Jewish women are less likely to see themselves as "practical, logical, cautious" (-2) than are Jewish men (0). While Jewish males rank +2 on "moral, religious, honest," Jewish women score -1. German-Protestant men score -3 in "insightful, analytical, intellectual" while German-Protestant women score 0. Polish-Catholic men score +3 on "moral, religious, honest" while Polish-Catholic women reflect a 0 score.

In the final portion of this chapter dealing with ethnic-religious orientation we will examine differences in post-college expectations. Our respondents were asked what were their actual plans for one year after they had obtained their baccalaureate degree.

The responses of the college seniors, as discussed in an earlier chapter show that the vast majority either anticipate full-time employment or full-time enrollment in graduate school. Men are much more likely than women to have graduate school expectations while women are much more likely to indicate an expectation of full time employment. It has also been noted that young men and women of higher SES backgrounds are more likely than those of less affluent backgrounds to state graduate and professional school expectations. In Table 7.5 we have controlled for sex, SES, and ethnic-religious orientation. In some cases the cell sizes are quite small and hence the generalizability of the findings are questionable. Still, we believe the controlling of sex and SES sheds some additional light upon the impact of ethnic-religious orientation. Percentage distributions are shown for both men and women of each ethnic-religious group who expect to attend graduate or professional school within a year of college graduation. The reader would be correct in assuming that the lower the graduate school expectation, the higher the full-time employment; and conversely, the higher the group frequency for graduate school, the lower the group expectation of full-time employment. We have combined the two lower SES groups (very-low and mid-low) and the two highest SES groups (mid-high and very-high) in order to produce Table 7.5.

Comparisons by sex, SES, and ethnic-religious group show that in virtually every case men are more likely to plan on graduate school attendance than are women. The exceptions in which female responses equal or exceed those of males are higher SES Polish-Catholics (a difference of 3%), higher SES Slavic-Catholics (no difference), and higher SES Blacks (a difference of 2%). In each instance the differences are quite small.

It has been well established in our data that students of higher SES groups are more likely than lower SES students to anticipate graduate school attendance. The reverse of this overall pattern is found among Irish-Catholic and Black men. In both cases higher graduate school expectations are indicated

Table 7.5

Sex, SES, Ethnic-Religious Group, and
Expectation of Graduate School Attendance

Ethnic-Religious Group	MALES				FEMALES			
	Low SES (25% of M sample)		High SES (32% of M sample)		Low SES (11% of F sample)		High SES (16% of F sample)	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
Anglo-Saxon-Protestant	19	(26)	27	(48)	11	(36)	12	(50)
German-Protestant	22	(59)	24	(63)	7	(69)	12	(79)
Irish-Catholic	53	(15)	33	(15)	8	(25)	-	(13)
German-Catholic	17	(18)	27	(11)	6	(18)	8	(12)
Polish-Catholic	9	(22)	37	(8)	5	(19)	40	(5)
Slavic-Catholic	25	(16)	25	(12)	12	(25)	25	(12)
Italian-Catholic	14	(29)	37	(19)	3	(29)	8	(25)
Jewish	50	(12)	73	(33)	31	(13)	30	(20)
Black	33	(36)	14	(7)	12	(93)	16	(19)
No Religion	27	(98)	27	(128)	16	(82)	20	(109)

by those of lower SES backgrounds. No differences are found by SES for Slavic-Catholic males, or for males who report No Religion.

Utilizing the overall percentage base of the proportion in each sex and SES group anticipating graduate school enrollment, we find the following:

Lower SES groups

Males:	(25% of the males of these groups anticipate graduate school attendance.)	Females:	(11% of the females of these groups anticipate graduate school attendance.)
Highest:	Irish-Catholics (53%) Jews (50%) Blacks (33%)	Highest:	Jews (31%) No Religion (16%)
Lowest:	Polish-Catholics (9%) Italian-Catholics (14%) German-Catholics (17%)	Lowest:	Italian-Catholics (3%) Polish-Catholics (5%)

Higher SES groups

Males:	(32% of the males of these groups anticipate graduate school attendance.)	Females:	(16% of the females of these groups anticipate graduate school attendance.)
Highest:	Jews (73%) Italian-Catholics (37%) Polish-Catholics (37%)	Highest:	Polish-Catholics (40%) Jews (30%) Slavic-Catholics (25%)
Lowest:	Blacks (14%) German-Protestants (24%)	Lowest:	Irish-Catholics (0%) Italian-Catholics (8%)

Our major intent in this chapter has been to introduce the reader to the potential of the ethnic-religious factor as observed in this study of graduating college seniors. Our own analysis of these preliminary data as well as our personal interviews with students leads us to conclude that ethnic-religious affiliation represents a factor which contributes to the non-monolithic quality of our sample - a sample which some would define as highly selective and highly homogeneous. Despite the admitted shortcomings of the ethnic-religious measure and the small number of respondents in some of the sample cells, we believe our findings make a case for more detailed and systematic studies of the socialization impact of ethnicity and religiousity.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The centrality and significance of work is a subject that has been studied and discussed by behavioral scientists, politicians, policy planners, employers, employees, those seeking employment, and those who have responsibility for preparing the young for entrance into the job market. That work, work attitudes, and work behaviors are of critical importance to individuals, families, and the society has not been argued. The questions which have been raised and debated in this decade include whether or not attitudes toward work have changed, and if our society is confronted by a growing phenomenon of worker alienation.

During the past few years the issue of work has moved beyond discussion and has entered the arena of controversy. A government funded study entitled "Work in America" concludes that worker disenchantment and alienation has gone beyond a single element of the society and is now a problem for both blue collar and white collar workers. This same study makes the point that increasingly large numbers of young people are placing a greater importance upon the saliency of work than might have been the case with their elders. Worker disenchantment and alienation are seen as contributing factors to increased drug abuse, alcoholism, and delinquency in the work place and the society in general. Not unlike other federally sponsored studies, this one was received with mixed feelings by the governmental agency which had funded the report. According to a story published in the December 22, 1972 issue of The New York Times, Elliot L. Richardson, then Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, "issued a somewhat cool statement along with the report today, stating that the report might be considered 'controversial.'" The Secretary also suggested that the report might leave something to be desired since "its conclusions may not be fully supported by the data and it may be off quite a bit, but if it were anywhere near the truth, we had better start thinking about the implications."

While there is a lack of agreement upon the content and conclusions of the report, there are at least two areas of consensus between those who prepared the report and those who received it. Both agree that the available data dealing with work attitudes and work behaviors are far from adequate; and both agree that there is a need for much more in the way of methodologically-sound empirical investigation.

This report on "Youth and the Meaning of Work" seeks to provide data which will contribute to our understanding of how a select group of American youth (graduating college seniors) perceive and feel about work.

In this final section of the report we will not attempt to review the data and discussion provided in the body of the report. The data collected, the variables analyzed, the points raised, and the conclusions drawn are too many and far too complex to summarize in detail. Rather, our purpose in this Summary and Conclusions section is to provide the reader with a feeling for and sense of the data which were obtained from the graduating classes of 1972. Again, it is important to point out that our data are based upon information provided by a select group of respondents - those who entered and completed college, most within a four year time period. This report does not deal with the many (how many we cannot say) who enrolled in college and then left prior to graduation. While we cannot assume that our sample is representative of all college seniors in Pennsylvania, much less all college seniors who graduated in the spring of 1972, whatever general data dealing with the characteristics of college seniors that we have been able to locate leads us to believe that our sample students are not too unlike college seniors in four year educational institutions throughout the country. We feel then that our sample is sufficiently representative to make tentative generalizations; at the same time we are fully aware of methodological considerations and hence recognize the need for caution in the making of such generalizations.

It is important to point out again that this research does not deal with college graduates who have entered the job market. This is not a study of how college seniors adjust to and feel about their employment. It is a study of the perceptions, aspirations, attitudes, and expectations of young men and women who are in the process of making a post-college transition. Many expect to enter graduate school, most expect full-time employment, and some are not quite certain about what they want to do or what they will be doing in the immediate future. How they will react to work, the kinds of employment they will find, their evaluations of their work settings or their graduate school experiences, and the relationships they will find between expectations and reality are all questions that cannot be answered at this time.

We can, however, say the following things about the graduating classes of 1972. They are not a monolith. Although these young people do represent a highly selective population, there are some significant differences among them. Three factors seem most important in accounting for the observed variations. They are the sex of the respondent, the socioeconomic status of the respondent, and the ethnic-religious orientation of the respondent.

Briefly, sex and socioeconomic status are very much associated with the schools which students attend, the fields of study which they enter, and the careers which they anticipate. Women, despite the growing rhetoric of liberation and occupational mobility, are highly concentrated in a limited number of fields. Generally, they anticipate working as school teachers, social workers, guidance counselors, nurses, and health profession technicians. Few women are found in the traditionally male-dominated occupational fields such as Business Administration and Engineering. Men are much more likely to anticipate enrollment in graduate school, while women are much more likely to anticipate immediate post-college, full-time employment. Women expect to receive lower salaries than do men even though their formal educational credentials and expected jobs are frequently similar to those of men.

Students of lower socioeconomic status are most likely to end up in colleges with the fewest academic offerings; they are most likely to enter fields which offer terminal baccalaureate degrees; and they are least likely to report post-college enrollment in professional or graduate schools. As a result, although these students do complete college, their access to higher status occupations and higher salaries is not equal to that of more affluent students. It is clear from our data that equality in occupational choice is not achieved by the single act of open college admissions. The concentrating of lower income youth in educational settings where few career alternatives are provided does not really enhance occupational equality.

We find that low income, first generation college students in general, and Black students more specifically, expect careers in relatively few fields.

Very few Black students aim for careers in law, medicine, science, or business. Similarly we find that many young people of blue collar, working class backgrounds expect careers which are at the bottom of the white collar, professional ladder. Finally, we can conclude from this research that there is a greater discrepancy between occupational preferences and expectations for lower income students than is the case with more affluent students. The more affluent students perceive a broader range of career alternatives and they feel they have a greater freedom of career choice. Students of lower socioeconomic status are less knowledgeable about career alternatives and have less in the way of career choice freedom. For more than a small number of lower income youth, expected careers do not necessarily represent career preferences.

The students' current ethnic-religious affiliation is yet another dimension which contributes to expressed attitudes, values, and expectations. Just how this factor operates and the stages in the life span in which ethnic-religious orientation takes hold we cannot say. We do know, however, that there are significant differences in a number of career and life-related variables which seem to be best explained by differences in ethnic-religious posture. In general, those students who see themselves as having no religious identification stand in greatest contrast to all other students. The no religion students are more likely than all other students to see themselves as alienated or hostile. They are least accepting of the traditional work ethic and of the belief that work builds character or that work makes you a better person. They tend to be least certain of what they want to do with their lives and they express the greatest dissatisfaction with their college experiences. Even among those who do report current ethnic and religious affiliation, there are interesting and significant variations. These differences are not washed away by the control of socioeconomic status. In many cases the differences between socioeconomic groups are not as great as those found when we compare students of different ethnic-religious orientations who are in the same socioeconomic group.

Each of these variables, sex, SES, and ethnic-religious orientation, contributes to the diversity we have found in this study of graduating college seniors. Each of these factors plays some part in how students feel about themselves, work, their college experiences, and their futures.

Whenever possible we have attempted to make comparisons between this sample of graduating college seniors and those who received the baccalaureate degree at some earlier time. The most valuable source for comparison is The National Opinion Research Center study of American college seniors graduated in 1961.

Our comparisons show much in the way of similarities, and some striking differences. In both studies, for example, non-whites are under-represented. In both studies most women are enrolled in Education and few are enrolled in Engineering, Business Administration, or majors which would lead to Medicine or Law careers. In both studies fewer women than men anticipate enrollment in either a graduate or professional school. In both studies most students stress the importance of altrusim and of finding jobs which will offer opportunities for self-growth, individuality, and creativity. In both studies students seem to place little emphasis upon the importance of social prestige or material possessions.

The differences in some instances are matters of degree. For example, the classes of 1972 place less emphasis on career earnings and more emphasis on work which will be of benefit to others and useful to society. The classes of 1972 are more rejecting of the importance of social status and prestige; they are less enthusiastic about the need to be in positions of leadership within the job setting. They are less likely to be enrolled in Business Administration and more likely to seek careers in professions which are oriented toward helping people.

The classes of 1972 are much more likely to report no current religious affiliation than were the classes of 1961. As a group they see themselves as less religious, and they are less likely to say that they attend religious services.

The classes of 1972 are more likely to say thay have no one single political preference or affiliation than were the students studied in 1961. For those who do report a political preference we find little difference when compared with the seniors of the NORC study. In both cases there are few students at the extreme ends of the political continuum. In both studies the majority of students see themselves as Liberals or Moderates. The difference again is that for the current sample there are significantly larger proportions of students who see themselves as Independents or as people with a more eclectic political attitude.

Our data indicate that in the area of work attitudes and the perceptions of the most salient characteristics of work, students see themselves as being quite different from their parents. There are two significant and striking differences which emerge when students are asked to compare their work needs with those of their fathers. Fathers are seen as placing most emphasis upon the salary and the security of a job. Students see themselves as being far less concerned with earnings and security, and much more concerned with the nature and purpose of the work. Students stress the more altruistic and intrinsic aspects of the job. They seek work which is useful to society and of benefit to others; work which is interesting; work which will allow one to express his own individuality; and work which will enhance individual growth.

In matters of political orientation students see themselves as being far more liberal than their parents. As noted earlier, most students who report a political affiliation indicate either a Liberal or a Moderate preference. Most however assign their parents to either the Conservative or Moderate political group.

Reflections upon the college experience indicate that most students are generally satisfied with their four years in college. The majority would, if given the opportunity, select the same college again.

The survey data and the personal interviews indicate that most students enter school with the expectation that they will be provided with training and learning opportunities in three basic areas. We have arbitrarily designated these three areas as follows: 1) Job-skill training and work-related counseling; 2) Self-development and interpersonal relationships; and 3) Intellectual and cognitive development. Responses to questions dealing with the match between expectations and realities of the college experience show some important discrepancies.

First, and for many students most important, is the perceived failure of the educational process in providing the student with opportunities in the area of job-skill training and work-related counseling. Many students do not believe that they are leaving college with critical or unique job skills. Many feel they have not been provided with the kinds of career related data which would enable them to find the kind of work they seek. Most have received little, if any, hard data about the job market, avenues they might pursue given a situation in which they were unable to find work in their fields, and little information about the expectations of potential employers and potential co-workers. Many students feel that they were forced to make their career choices at a time when they had little real information about the job market and career alternatives. It is also clear that many students feel they had to make career choices with long-range consequences at a time when they were still quite unclear and uncertain as to their own personal needs and desires. It seems that for many students career selection is required during a time when the student is first beginning to deal with himself and to examine seriously his relationships with others and with society.

A social climate which acts to encourage self-examination, and the availability of courses and programs designed to facilitate self-development and interpersonal relationships, do have some impact upon college youth. The survey data and personal interviews strongly suggest that many of the respondents have and continue to undergo forms of analysis in which they seek to better understand themselves and their relationships with others. Whether this is a new phenomenon among college youth we cannot say. It may well be that past generations of youth have undergone similar experiences but these were kept at a very private level by a social climate which did not encourage open expression of one's personal feelings and apprehensions. Regardless of whether open concern with self and others is unique to this generation or not, it is clear that there are significant numbers of students who, at the time they graduate from college, still are less than secure in their feelings about themselves and their relationships with others.

What students seem to be saying is that the four years in college have given them the time and the stimuli to give more detailed and serious thought to matters of self-identity and relationships with others. The college experience exposes students to peers and faculty who may express ideas, attitudes, values, and behaviors quite different from those held by the student. This exposure to others as well as a contemporary campus and social environment which stresses self-awareness, self-growth, self-determination, self-responsibility, and responsibility to others does encourage the student to think about his own self-concept and how he wants to relate to and live with others. What appears to be missing, according to many students, is some form of closure. The stimuli and setting for self-analysis are there, but what is not available are the opportunities and experiences which would facilitate resolution and enable the student to feel somewhat more certain about himself and his involvements with others.

We do not mean to suggest that massive numbers of college youth are undergoing emotional stress and strain so severe that they will be unable to function adequately in our society. Nor are we proposing that the self-doubts expressed by our respondents will act as barriers to their fulfilling expected adult roles. Rather, we are saying that many students at the time they complete college feel that they have had neither sufficient time nor opportunity to deal with and come to terms with how they see and feel about themselves, others, and the relationship they want to see between themselves and their society. The result is that there are many students who, at the time they graduate from college, are still quite uncertain as to what they want to do; are uncertain as to personal goals; and feel that their personal problems will be major barriers to goal attainment.

There is one area in which there is general consensus among students that pre-college expectations have been fulfilled. This is the area of intellectual and cognitive development. Aside from how relevant or meaningful the information may or may not seem to them, most students do believe that they were exposed to a wide range of new ideas, new concepts, and general knowledge.

For most students the formal education process has consisted of the completion of a series of tasks designated, for the most part, by someone other than the student. This required process consists of the student providing some form of evidence that he has fulfilled the requirements and expectations of the individual faculty member, his college major, and the licensing institution. In general, regardless of the size or location of their college, students have had little personal contact with faculty, academic advisors, or other adult members of the academic community. Nevertheless, most students indicate that they would re-select the school from which they are graduating if they were to do it all again. Only a handful appear angry or extremely disenchanted with their college or university. This lack of discontent, we speculate, can be explained in several ways. We are dealing only with those who have remained in college. These are students who, regardless of their own expectations or personal views, have made the decision to remain within the formal educational system. Additionally, we have the feeling that students do not believe there are many real differences between colleges at least in terms of the more formal educational procedures and practices. They may see obvious differences in variables such as student population size, the kinds of students who attend different institutions, institutional rules and regulations, and differences in how "hard" or how "easy" the formal academic requirements might be; but at the same time they tend to feel that all colleges and universities are pretty much alike when it comes to the actual educational achievement and attainment process.

Finally, most students have been taught to believe that college is really a means to an end. With the escalation of educational credentials and a job market which places more and more emphasis upon technological skills, fresh knowledge, and communication facility as well as personal skills, a college degree is seen as a must - like it or not.

In summary, our analysis of the data dealing with reflections upon and evaluation of the college experience results in the following conclusions: 1) Most students express generally favorable attitudes about their college experience. 2) Most, if they had to do it all again, would attend the same institution. More than a third would attend college but change their social experiences; about a fifth would want to change their academic major; about a fourth would do it all the same way again; less than five percent (5%) would choose to not attend college at all; and about fifteen percent (15%) would not attend the same institution from which they are graduating. 3) The two areas in which many students feel their expectations or aspirations were not fulfilled are job-skill training and self-development. The area in which they feel their expectations were met is general intellectual and cognitive growth.

In attempting to understand the data which deals with expected and preferred post-college life styles it is important to differentiate between the form and content of student responses. The form or surface data suggest that most students anticipate life styles very much like those lived by most middle-class adults. There is little evidence of non-traditional marital or family forms. Only a handful of students anticipate a family structure different from that of the conjugal or nuclear. Few students, male or female, anticipate living with a member of the opposite sex without going through the formalities and rituals of some kind of marriage licensing and ceremony. No doubt it is true that greater numbers of women than might have been the case ten years ago now expect to defer the time of marriage. Most of the women in our sample do expect to work after college, and many anticipate working after marriage and during the time of child rearing. It is also apparent that many women in our sample expect to delay having children for an extended period of time after they are married in order to pursue their career interests. Generally, both men and women in our sample are amenable to at least some changes in sex role behaviors and relationships. For example, both tend to agree that there should be an equalization of opportunities and tasks between men and women both inside and outside of family settings. Still, the surface picture presented by these graduating seniors shows little to indicate a strong shift to communal living or any other form of extended kinship familial structure. The picture still gives the clear impression that the man will be the outside breadwinner and goal attainment facilitator, while the woman will be the child caretaker and hold responsibility for the day-to-day activities of the home.

When, however, we go beyond the presentation of marginals which deal with family and sex-role relationship patterns and deal with the content of the expected and preferred relationships between men and women, parents and children, and the individual and others, we get a somewhat different impression. For example, although only a few students indicate a preference for communal living itself, many are very much in favor of developing relationships which one would expect to find within a commune or some other type of extended kin system. The quality of human relationships is clearly a factor of salience to the majority of these people. Openness and freedom in relationships is another important ingredient of desired life styles. A "happy family" is in fact the dimension of life most frequently referred to by most college graduates. Work is important, but work can be sacrificed if the needs and demands of the job will come at the expense of family and family relationships.

While traditional expectations of sex-role relationships and responsibilities have not been abandoned, there certainly is sufficient evidence to indicate that many young people are willing to explore alternatives. The traditional norms of an expected, appropiate division of labor both within and outside of the family are, we believe, beginning to be challenged. The students in this research, if not yet convinced, are at least willing to recognize that times are changing and that there is a need to redefine and reassess the relationships between husbands and wives. Similarily, there is a willingness to examine and modify how one rears and relates to one's children. Our impression is that many young people will attempt to interact with and socialize their children in ways different from those in which they themselves were reared.

Our analyzing of the data and of the many personal interviews held with college seniors leads us to conclude that we can anticipate a resurgence of family centered life in our society. Again, the surface form may well look no different from that which we now see or think we see as being representative of the American middle class. The contrast will be found in the more private and less visible aspects of families. There will be, we believe, greater emphasis upon the equality, rights, and individual needs of family members regardless of age or sex. There will also be more, we believe, in the way of open relationships and a willingness to deal with the many problems which arise when people live in constant and close proximity to one another.

The greater emphasis upon the importance of family and human relationships within families is the result of a number of factors. Obviously the current popular concern, both on and off the campus, with sex roles, interpersonal relationships, and families does enhance discussion of such matters. As others have noted, growing technology and rapid social change, as well as large scale, impersonal dimensions of our society, contribute to feelings of loneliness, isolation, and powerlessness. The nation-state and the various social institutions which have provided a source of identification and association in the past seem less satisfying and fulfilling now. Finally, the experience of seeing the relative ineffectiveness of the efforts of young people who have sought to influence the policies of colleges and the nation is yet another factor contributing to the emphasis upon privatism and concern with the family and family relationships.

The growing number of young people who have moved away from the religion in which they were reared and the many people who indicate they have no one political orientation or ideology would seem to represent a shift away from more traditional associations and identifications. The shift appears to be inward toward more private and more restricted positions. This turning inward does in some ways represent a form of "splendid isolation." We do find some evidence which tends to contradict the interpretation that this concern with self must occur at the expense of others. For example, the majority of the students feel that students today are more committed to correcting social wrongs than were students ten years ago. There is concern with other people and an expressed desire to have one's personal life and professional life contribute to the general well-being of the society.

What many students seem to be saying is, "Before I can really help others, I have to 'get myself together.'" Rather than seeking to take on the entire social system and its shortcomings, these students believe they must first build a more wholesome, meaningful, and workable smaller social system. That smaller social system is limited to their spouse, children, kin, and perhaps a select group of friends. Within this smaller social system there is greater opportunity for maintaining control over one's destiny; greater opportunity to live the way one wishes; greater opportunity to express one's ideas and feelings; greater opportunity to feel that one is a person with unique needs and desires; and a greater opportunity for self-exploration and self-development.

We would conclude then that this generation of college seniors does not expect to neglect the problems of others or the problems of the society. At the same time we believe that the first priority will be to one's self, one's family, and one's closest associates. The emphasis upon self and a small group of others is not, we believe, the product of self-indulgence, denial of the needs of others, or the single-minded pursuit of affluence. Rather this turning inward represents what many people, particularly young people, see as the only effective and efficient way of retaining a feeling of self-worth, self-determination, and self-fulfillment in our society. The extent to which this turning inward reflects apathy, defeat, or perhaps personal indifference we cannot say with any degree of assuredness.

We turn now to a summary presentation of the work-related data. Within the body of the report we identify the variables which appear to influence how respondents feel about work. We point out the relationships among sex, socioeconomic status, field of study, and job expectations, job preferences, salary expectations, and desired career characteristics. We attempt to identify the fit between career preference and life style expectation. We also deal with perceptions of the job market and concerns about career futures. Finally, we seek to provide the reader with some idea of the concerns students express and the barriers students identify when they talk about their post-college futures. In this summary we can do little more than identify the prevalent themes which have emerged from our analysis of the many variables discussed throughout the report.

We begin with the observation that the vast majority of our students express favorable attitudes toward work. Many in fact believe that their feelings about work are more positive than are the work attitudes held by others. Regardless of their feelings about work, the majority of respondents expect to enter the job market either within a year of college graduation or at the time they complete their graduate school training. Very few expect to be self-employed and very few expect to find employment outside of the conventional economic system.

Many have serious doubts about the quality and uniqueness of their job skills, and many feel that they have not been adequately prepared for the contemporary work market. Many feel that they were forced to make career choices before they had adequate knowledge of the intricacies and complexities of different careers, and before they had an opportunity to study the fit between their own personal values and the dimensions of the fields of study and career which they selected.

Although they have little in the way of hard data, the majority believe that desirable jobs in their chosen fields will be difficult to find. Most believe that the job market has tightened significantly between the time when they selected their academic majors and the time they complete their undergraduate studies. A substantial number of graduating seniors report that they had not seriously sought work at the time they participated in this research. Many others who did look for work report that they were unsuccessful in finding work. Only a small proportion say they have found work with which they are pleased.

Few students say that they expect to sit idly by waiting for the proper job to appear. The majority expect to initiate or continue the job search. Those who cannot find the job of their choice expect to find temporary work or to seek work in a field other than that in which they were trained. The majority note that they would be very distressed if they were unable to find adequate employment. Those most apprehensive about the perceived limited job market are first generation college goers, students of lower socioeconomic backgrounds.

Despite expressed concerns about the current job market, most students assume that they will eventually find employment and that it will be the kind of employment which will provide them with a reasonable income. The major concerns do not seem to be with matters of income, economic security, or social prestige. Rather, the major concerns are with finding careers and work settings which will allow the individual to do relevant things; which will facilitate self-growth and development; which will enhance the use of unique skills and ideas; which will encourage creativity and learning; and, of primary importance to many, which will enable the individual to help others and to contribute to the quality of the society.

The majority of the respondents believe that work is a good builder of character. At the same time there is far less commitment to the belief that hard work alone makes one a better person. To be a better person one must find relevance and meaning both within and outside of the job system.

Not unlike other members of our society, the graduating seniors see work as a critical and necessary part of adult life. Few students have ever seriously believed that they could escape at least some type of work involvement. The difference between these college seniors and others is found, we believe, in what they expect from their work and in the intrinsic nature of the connection they seek to make between work and other important parts of their lives.

From the information provided by the respondents we would have to reject the position of those who maintain that the work ethic is dead or dying. Rather, we would maintain that we are witnessing the emergence of a new and in many ways much improved work ethic. It appears to be a work ethic which reflects the expectation that work is more than a means to an end, more than a means of earning a livelihood; it suggests that one works not only because of societal expectations, family responsibilities, or religious ideology. The changing work ethic reflects beliefs that work can and should be non-exploitive; that it can and should be relevant and useful; that it should provide the individual with opportunities to interact with others; and at least to some extent that it should allow the individual some opportunity to influence the policies, goals, and procedures of the work setting.

This emerging work ethic de-emphasizes the importance of money, power, and social prestige. An adequate salary is of course assumed but the accumulation of wealth is not a salient goal. Money itself is not seen to represent success or happiness. These students' work attitudes reflect a concern with the consequences of their work activities; that is, they do not want to be involved in work efforts which contribute to the production of inferior products or the pollution and deterioration of the physical environment.

In conclusion, there appears to be an emerging work ethic which places a much greater demand upon work. The expectation is that work can and should be of greater significance to the individual and of greater value to the society. As there are higher and different expectations for the content and form of work, there is also a change, we believe, in the expected fit between work and other life activities. Work, for many of these seniors, is not seen as an activity which should be separate or isolated from one's family or private life. Most students anticipate that family adjustments will be necessitated by work involvements. Work is viewed as being an integral part of one's total life. Again, work is not considered to be a means to an end, but rather as a potential source for enhancing self-sufficiency and family relationships. At the same time work and career needs are not expected to take priority over family relationships. Occupational mobility will be sacrificed if it must come at the expense of family needs and desires.

In conclusion we would say that the classes of 1972 hold a positive and fairly enthusiastic attitude toward work. Despite some apprehensions and self-doubts about the future, they are ready to begin work and pursue career goals. They hold high expectations for both work and their private lives. How realistic they are in their expectations or how successful they will be in the achievement of their expectations we cannot say.

Sampling Instructions

In order to select the sample of students to whom you will distribute the questionnaires, you will need two alphabetized lists, one containing the names of every eligible senior female in your school and one containing the names of every eligible senior male in your school.

An eligible senior is a student who will be registered as an undergraduate during the Spring, 1972, and who is expected to receive his or her baccalaureate degree (A.B., B.A., B.S., B.Ed., B.Arch., B.Eng., etc.) at the end of the Spring term, 1972. This means that you should exclude, insofar as possible, students who had completed all work for their degrees prior to the current term but who will not have been formally graduated until the June convocation. The work "registered" in the first sentence of this paragraph is to be interpreted broadly as meaning "still fulfilling requirements for a baccalaureate degree." In other words, you should classify a student as "registered" even if he is no longer taking courses but is fulfilling an honors thesis or some sort of outside employment or internship requirement.

Students under five-year baccalaureate programs in fields like engineering and architecture who are going to receive their degrees at the end of this term are to be classified as eligible seniors. Students being graduated from a professional school which requires two or more years of undergraduate work prior to admission are here viewed as receiving graduate degrees rather than baccalaureate degrees and are therefore to be excluded from the study. This means that students receiving Bachelor of Law degrees are invariably to be excluded while students receiving first professional degrees in fields like Divinity and Social Work are to be excluded if the professional school they are attending requires two or more years of undergraduate work prior to admission.

Should it turn out to be difficult to decide whether or not a certain category of students is to be included in the sample, immediately write or call Dr. David Gottlieb describing your problem so that he can send you a ruling on the case.

Should it be difficult to distinguish students who are still registered from those who had completed all their work during a prior term, do the best you can, even if this involves distributing questionnaires to some ineligible graduating students. Err on the side of distributing too many questionnaires, if error cannot be avoided.

We are aware that a definitive graduation list may not yet be available at your school, so all we ask is that you assemble as complete a list as is currently possible. If it should turn out that some of the anticipated graduates fail to fulfill their degree requirements during the present term, no great damage will be done. Again, you should err on the side of distributing questionnaires to some students who may not actually be graduated this June rather than omitting any students who will be graduated. Nevertheless, you should use as accurate a list as can now be obtained and not distribute questionnaires to students who cannot possibly complete their requirements during the current term.

Step one in selecting the sample is to assemble or gain access to a complete register of eligible seniors. Since different schools keep their records in different ways, we cannot prescribe precisely what sort of register you should use or how you should distinguish an eligible senior from an ineligible one. You might find that your school will make available to you a typed list, a set of IBM cards, a set of file cards, or some other type of record which enables you to distinguish the eligible from the ineligible seniors. Any of these, or two of them used in conjunction, may turn out to be optimum for your school. You will have to make your choice on the basis of the particular situation you find.

Once you have assembled two complete, accurate lists of both female and male eligible graduating seniors, you are to contact Dr. David Gottlieb's office for further information on the set of sampling instructions specific to your school.

Once you have received this information concerning the sampling procedure, and have drawn the required number of names, please send us a complete listing of the names and addresses of the sample students. Retain a copy for your own record-keeping. When you send us the copy of your sample list, please include a detailed description of the sampling procedure you employed.

Interview

White female   Secondary Education   Fletcher State College

Interviewer: So you're all ready to graduate.
Respondent: In May.
I. In May. What are you planning to do as far as right after graduation?
R. I'm looking for a job.
I. Any different areas?
R. No, I'm just applying to different high schools in this area.
I. In secondary education?
R. I want to.
I. How does this relate to the future as far as maybe five years from now?
R. Five years from now? Probably be married and have some kids.
I. Would you be teaching at this time also?
R. I would like to keep on working as long as I don't have children. When I have children I feel that I have to stay home with them until at least they're in grade school.
I. Are your occupational plans definite? Are you sure this is the area you are going into?
R. It would be if there were available jobs, but in secondary education, in social studies jobs are scarce so if I can't get a job in that area and I do want to work, I'll have to go into something else.
I. Have you thought about any other areas where you would like to work?
R. Not really, no.
I. Have you received any job offers or made any applications out to any of these schools?
R. I've sent out applications, but I haven't had any interviews.
I. How is the response so far?
R. No jobs!
I. What do you think as far as some of the characteristics of jobs? What type of school would you like to be in?
R. What type of school situation? Type of school I would like to teach in?
I. Um hm.
R. Well I've applied to suburban and rural area schools, I didn't go to the city.
I. Is there any definite reason?
R. To tell you the truth I don't feel like getting stabbed. Since I'm a female. I know men teachers who graduated from Fletcher, they're in the city. They can cope with it. They're big men and the kids will respect them more of if not will listen more. You know what I mean -- a female teacher going in there. I can see where people want to help the city students in the poor areas, but I wouldn't want to take the chance.
I. What does the idea as far as not having a job after graduation -- how do you feel about that?
R. Well, I'm not happy about it. In fact when I was student teaching, knowing that I might not get a job, it was discouraging. All the way through you're putting forth effort towards something that will never come of it. They say no one can take away a four year degree, but I still need money to eat, I still need a job.
I. Would you go into another area besides teaching?
R. I guess I'd have to. It wouldn't be up to the standards of a teacher. I mean it would be what I call a lower job; lower pay, lower prestige. You need less ability to do it. To go into any area that is as high as

professional teaching you need to have higher education in that area, that field.

I. How did you actually start; decide to be a teacher?

R. My mother.

I. Was it a long process?

R. Yes, ever since I was little my mother said, "You're going to college" because my brother didn't go and she thought that was a mistake. She thought going to college would take care of you financially; you'd have a job. When I graduated (high school) they needed teachers, now they don't. So her dreams weren't fulfilled as far as that goes. But that's what started it, when my mother wanted me to go to college and since I had the grades in high school, I thought well, it's worth going into.

I. Did you ever pursue any areas besides secondary education?

R. No, I applied to state schools for teaching and that's all. When I graduated (high school) I didn't know anything. The guidance counselors weren't much help. I didn't know there were so many fields open, there are so many fields.

I. What type of help did the guidance counselors give you?

R. They told us what courses to take as far as going to college because I was in academic. As far as what to do after that I consider they were no help.

I. Tell me, if you had to make your choice all over again as an incoming freshman would you still be in secondary education?

R. Not if the job situation were as it is, probably not. Maybe I would have done something like dental hygienist or medical field because of open jobs.

I. Since you were a freshman have you seen yourself making any changes as far as coming and wanting to be a teacher?

R. It takes a lot more work than you think when you're in high school. The teacher just doesn't get up there and talk. There is a lot more to it than you think as a freshman. It takes a lot of confidence to get up there and do it.

I. Are you planning to make a future out of teaching? Is this something you want to pursue for awhile? What about when you marry?

R. As I said before I'd like to keep working for as long as I don't have children because once I have children I feel I should stay home with them. It is no good if the mother works for the kids to be here and there. I don't like that idea. So with a woman in an occupation it's different. If I were a man I'd say yes, it would be my life's work.

I. Have you formed any ideas about the life style you'd like to have in the next few years?

R. What I would like to have or what I'm going to have?

I. What you would like to have.

R. I'm materialistic the way most middle class suburbanites are. I'd like to have a home in the country. I wouldn't live in the city. I wasn't brought up there; I don't think I'd like it too much. In the country, not even suburban, but way out in the country. It wouldn't have to be big or new. An old house we could fix up ourselves. I could care less what I drive. As far as the rest of my life style, probably basically what my parents have done -- to go church, send my kids to Sunday school and church. I think I'll be more interested in the school my kids go to, more so than my parents were. They never went to PTA, never went to my high school. My mom didn't even know where my high school was. As for recreation, I'd just love someday to go to Europe or even to California or any place like that; just to travel, but you need money for that too.

I. Do you see the work you'll be doing in the future, teaching - will this conflict in any way with your life style?

R. If anything it will help. If I should stay home -- you sort of lose contact with the outside world. I know a lot of housewives that do. They aren't dumb or anything like that, they just lose contact with all around them. If I teach it would keep me in the public, it would keep me educated and I could bring in money to have those material things to to maybe travel. I think it would also help my children as far as when they start to go to school, it I go back to teaching it would help them to be interested in the outside world.

I. So your teaching will fit in with your life style, reinforce or support it.

R. Yes, I think so.

I. You said an interesting thing awhile back when we started on life style. You mentioned whether it was what you wanted it to be or what it will be. You've looked at it idealistically. What do you think it will be like?

R. Well, at first, I'm pessimistic at this point about getting a job because I am a female and they hire men teachers before women because they know when you get married you'll have kids and probably quit for awhile or perhaps permanently. So at first I won't have a job in what I want to do, which is discouraging to begin with. We are planning to get married as soon as we can, in May or June. But he has schooling yet to go through, until next January. So we'll probably live in an apartment somewhere in town. We won't get to travel for quite awhile; until he graduates and gets a job. We probably won't have kids at first for financial reasons. So it probably will be different than what I want, at first. Then maybe we can get situated so we save money and get what we want. I guess you can end up with it, but you don't start out with it. You work toward it.

I. How are your parents' attitudes toward work related to yours? How do they feel about your going into teaching?

R. How do they feel about it?

I. Do you discuss it much with them? You said your mother always wanted you to be a teacher.

R. Yeah, well they think it is a respectable job and they always say it's better than working in a factory. Working in a factory in dirty and hard. Of course with my education they think it would be educational. You can learn things all the time when you're teaching. They hope I do get a job teaching.

I. Are your parents' hopes for your future more or less the same as yours?

R. No. My mother has these wild dreams about my meeting some rich doctors, things like that. She wanted me to go to college to be a teacher, and I gave you the reasons why she liked the idea of a teacher. But this was basically for if something ever happened to my husband I'd have something to fall back on. Or if I didn't want to be just a housewife I could do something but, they still wanted me to marry someone with money -- which I'm not. They think I should start out right where they ended up, you know, having everything. I try to tell them it can't be that way. In fact I think it would be better if I have to work for it rather than just sit back and have them hand it to me. But they can't see it that way. They want me to have it like they have it now, right from the beginning with their home, all the new appliances, the new car.

I. Do you think they have a lot of satisfaction as far as their present life style?

R. Present life style, well, they have the material things they've always wanted, but I can say thev are far from happy. My dad works nights and my mother can't stand that. He has an odd shift and she can't seem to adjust to it.

I. What do you think about work itself? What are some of the factors you think about when you talk in terms of work? How do you define work?

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I. What do you think about work itself? What are some of the factors you think about when you talk in terms of work? How do you define work?

I. Where have you sought this information about jobs? Write to different schools?

R. One of the professors provided a form letter for seeking jobs at schools so I copied that, then went to the phone book for the names of schools in the area and sent away to them.

I. Do you think the college could do more for you?

R. There is a placement center, but it's kind of inconvenient. You have to go up there all the time to look at all the notices and I'm sort of lazy. They do have interviews for you in that way, but the job situation is so tight. I don't think they can help. It's up to you to set up interviews.

I. Do you think you are independent as far as where you are going? Do you think you are in control of your destiny?

R. I'm not sure of the future. One never is. I think if I had a job for September, if someone gave me a job, I'd be basically set. Getting a job means a lot because you have to have money before you can go anywhere.

I. Do you see any handicaps that would prevent you from having the kind of life you want?

R. Money, you never know what is going to go wrong. Thinks like that you never know. You yourself could become very ill so you couldn't go into teaching or any other job. That would make you dependent on other people.

I. Do you feel that the state of society has more influence over what you do or will do than you do yourself.

R. Well it has to because everyone is part of society.

I. What do you see as the most important end result of your college experience besides the actual degree?

R. The experience of being with different people even though Fletcher doesn't have that much of a variety. There is no one from California or Florida, or rich people, but you do see different people.

I. Would you do it again?

R. College? As far as the job situation goes, probably not. As far as social things here at Fletcher, yes, I'd do that again.

I. Has your college experience opened up a lot of special awareness that you didn't have before?

R. Yes, definitely. I think any experience you have such as going to college or traveling or jobs you may have along the way in college definitely provide experiences of learning about how people live, act. Fletcher doesn't have much variety; some but not as much as if you yourself traveled.

I. Do you think your experiences here are sufficient to help you in a teaching situation? Has the experience given you the skills you need?

R. If I teach in a suburban or rural school; not the city. I don't see how it could.

I. How would you describe the atmosphere here at Fletcher; the students what they're like, the social kinds of things?

R. The students have changed since I first came here.

I. How have they changed?

R. Of course I haven't lived here so perhaps someone who has would see the students differently. The newer students coming in from high school are anti this and that. They don't like this, they don't like that. Most of the students who come here are from suburban homes. They've had it good all their lives, yet they have gripes. Sure everyone has their own opinions, but if they ever had to go out and live on their own without their parents; I don't know what they'd do. And they are more liberal; their opinions are different from their parents. And some of them are going to be teachers. They're so immature. Sure I came right out of high school too, but there just seems to be a difference.

Interview

White male   Psych Major   Metro University

Interviewer: What do you plan to do immediately after graduation?

Respondent: I do plan to get a job of some sort -- I really don't know what it will be. It won't be in the field of psychology at first.

I. Why?

R. With just a bachelor's I don't think I'll be able to get a job as a clinical psychologist.

I. Do you plan to go to grad school?

R. Perhaps a few years from now.

I. Have you actively looked for a job?

R. In psych? oh -- for the summer?

I. Yes, immediately after graduation.

R. No.

I. What are the most important characteristics of the job you are looking for?

R. Well, the most important thing to me is to be able to do something with people and be able to feel as if I am fulfilling something in myself.

I. What would be an ideal work setting for you?

R. Hmmm--I feel as if I am pretty adaptable.

I. Does the possibility that you might not have a job right after graduation concern you?

R. Not overly.

I. What will you do if you can't find a job?

R. Well, I'll either live at my parents' home or with some friends and just keep looking for some sort of job.

I. When did you decide to go into psych?

R. Three years ago. I wasn't a psych major.

I. What were you majoring in before you decided on psych?

R. I was a physics major.

I. What made you change your mind?

R. It was a number of things -- I don't know -- I guess the biggest thing would be I wasn't satisfied working just with physical things. I had to feel I was doing something with people.

I. Um--hmm Were there any people that helped you change your mind or was this just your own choice?

R. In an indirect way -- one person who changed my mind was a girlfriend that I was going with at the time.

I. If you could do anything you wanted to do -- if you didn't have to worry about money -- just do in your related field - what would you do?

R. I would work in parapsychology -- ESP.

I. Is there any reason why you can't do that now?

R. ah -- I think yes -- there is the reason that there are so few people doing research in ESP that for me to join them I think I might have to have a master's or doctorate before I could join the team.

I. What do you expect to do ultimately in relation to your career?

R. I think I expect ultimately to work in parapsychology .

I. Have you formed any ideas about the type of life style you'd like to lead?

R. Yes -- low pressure, human value oriented rather than money and material oriented - I guess all these things are so generalized a life style -- basically I'd like to live the Golden Rule my entire life, if possible.

I. O.K. What do you see as the critical elements of this life style?

R. Being open and caring for other people, that is something I think.

I. In what way do you see your probable work influencing this life style?

R. Well -- I feel that the work I have in mind deals with the inner nature of man and I would like to see a tremendous surge toward inner values in people. Hopefully if anything that I could do to bring this to the forefront of consciousness of a number of people -- I would be happy with that.

I. Do you think that your attitudes and values toward work are similar to those of your parents?

R. That's a hard one -- hmm -- yes - in a way. I have a good deal of a need to achieve, to do things -- which I'm sure my father has this. My mother to an extent too -- Yes.

I. Do you and your parents discuss what you're going to do after graduation?

R. Occasionally -- they think I'm too idealistic.

I. Are your parents' hopes for your future similar to your plans?

R. No, I don't think so.

I. In what ways are they different?

R. I somehow think they would rather see me settled to one particular type thing -- whatever I'm going to do. However, I have a notorious drifting factor in my own personality -- I don't stay on one thing too long. I think they would like to see me get my head together -- which -- in a way I think it already is. A difference of opinion.

I. How do you perceive your mother's satisfaction with her life, her work -- Does she work?

R. No.

I. O.K. with her life.

R. I think she is very well satisfied with her life. She's a happy person and a warm person.

I. What about your father?

R. I don't think that he is satisfied with his life. He's done a lot in his life, but he's had setbacks in the last five years or so that have put him into an entirely new picture -- his relationship to what he does, so I feel he is dissatisfied.

I. What sort of work does he do?

R. He doesn't do anything now. He used to be a manufacturer of frozen french fried potatoes, but the business that he worked with went bankrupt -- so he has been looking around for things to do, but has not really come to terms with what he is going to do.

I. What are the factors or elements you think of when you talk about work -- not in your field, but work in general?

R. Work in general? I think work can be very, very satisfying, almost an enobeling thing. I would like to think that people will generally profit from work, in terms of benefit to themselves -- not just sort of in economic ways, but by being able to do things. I don't know -- when I look at work as a garbage collector I don't really think that does much for a person, however when you think of other jobs that could be done -- that need to be done -- a lot of good comes from it.

I. Are there any aspects in your probably work situation which seem problematic to you?

R. Yes, having an acceptance by people in general to research into ESP.

I. In what ways do you perceive the goals of your probable work as being tied to the goals of other aspects of your life?

R. I see a very close correlation to what I want to do in work and my other goals -- learning how to live very well with other people.

I. Do you think it will be necessary for you to give up or sacrifice anything in seeking your goals?

R. No.

I. How do you define work?

R. (chuckle) Work is that which occupies you -- whether it occupies your mind or your body -- it's a --. I don't know if I can go much further -- occupy comes so close to occupation -- let's let it go at that.

I. O.K. What values do you place on work?

R. I value work as something good -- not busy work. I value work as constructive -- as a development of a person.

I. What price would you be willing to pay in terms of your life style in order to achieve your goals?

R. Oh well -- I'd cut my hair -- I'd shave -- beyond that I don't think there is much about my life style that is so different I'd have to give it up.

I. Do you feel that there is a particular social status associated with your work?

R. Yes, a positive and a negative one - depending on who's looking at that type of work.

I. How important to you is it?

R. Social status?

I. Yes.

R. Not very.

I. Have your attitudes toward the most important aspects of a job changed during your college years?

R. Yes.

I. In what ways?

R. When I was a physics major I felt that what I was doing, what I was studying - was preparing me basically to get a job in which I could make a lot of money and live pretty easily in a nice new house with good things that money can provide, but I don't really care about those things too much now. I have the feeling that wherever I am I can be happy.

I. Do you think your attitudes and values toward work are similar to those of your friends?

R. No, not too similar. This could be a streak of pessimism running down through me to say that I don't think that many of them think in terms of work where they themselves can do to help a lot of people -- help some people -- some sort of uplifting type of job. I think maybe a few of my friends do feel this way, but not the majority of them.

I. Do you think that your plans about your life style are similar to those of your friends?

R. Yes, to some extent, at least to the exteriors of the life style -- what it looks like. Some things we share, common conceptions of how to treat people.

I. Where would you like to work, live?

R. I'd like to go to Virginia. Beyond that I would like to live in one place for five years then move on to ten other places.

I. Why Virginia?

R. Its climate, its geography. It's also close to a place in Virginia Beach called the ARE where research is being done in ESP.

I. Do you believe there is a general concern among your friends about the place work will have in their lives?

R. General concern? Yes. I really don't see how they could escape some kind of general concern. Yeah, I'm sure they have.

I. Have you sought the help of the university in finding a job?

R. No.

I. Does the university offer any help?

R. Yes it does. There is the placement thing.

I. Do you plan to use it?

R. No.

I. Why?

R. Basically, with just a bachelor's degree -- maybe it's just in my mind -- they couldn't help.

I. Do you plan to seek assistance from any one, as far as finding a job?

R. That's hard to say. Yes, I think that I might if there was a possibility of my meeting some people in the kind of research I'm interested in. Perhaps by talking to them I could find a job. That's a possibility, I guess it is the only one.

I. What factors do you think can prevent you from having the kind of life you want?

R. H'mm -- oh I guess there are an awful lot of factors. There could be economic problems that suddenly might have the need for a lot of money. Let's say if I suddenly became not one, but a family, then I'd have to blunt my idealism to make sure I can provide for my family, economically. I suppose there is a danger of me just sort of losing some sort of ambition that I have. I know I've talked to some people who graduated one, two, three years ago who were very fired up about what they wanted to do, but with defeats along their projected paths they no longer wanted to do what they first wanted to do.

I. Do you feel the state of society has more influence over what you will do than you do yourself?

R. No, I don't. I don't feel as if society has me boxed in, no.

I. Do you feel you are in complete control of your destiny?

R. (chuckle) Not -- no -- I feel as if I have control over my destiny, however I'm sure there are unknown causes, to me, that are going to be hard to overcome.

I. Would you work for a manufacturing company whose process or products contribute to pollution?

R. H'mmm -- I don't know. I've asked myself that question before and said, "no, I wouldn't," but like I said, if something happened so that I needed money, yes, I probably would.

I. Would you hesitate to work for a company where you had to carry out policies you thought were wrong?

R. Yes, I'd hesitate.

I. Is there a possibility you would work for them though?

R. Oh, yes, there is a possiblity that exists there, but somehow knowing my personality, I don't think I'd be with them very long though.

I. Would you hesitate to work for an organization which questioned your involvement with unpopular causes?

R. No, no, I wouldn't say so. Unpopular causes could be good or bad, that wouldn't stop me.

I. What do you see as the most important end result of your college experience?

R. H'mm, well, that's really a hard one. I don't know. The end result is -- oh I don't know. It's much more than a result of my college thing. It's so many different things; it's not an end result. So many possibilities have opened up to me. I'm being so general. I'm not making any sense at all. The end result of college has made me turn toward an orientation of wishing to be productive, wishing to achieve something that I'll be proud of, be happy to say I did. Things like writing a paper in a course made me realize I can do things. I can use my mind. I can be proud and happy.

I. Would you do it again, knowing what you do now in regard to college?

R. Yes.

I. In exactly the same way?

R. No.

I. What would you do differently?

R. Well, I think I would be much more interested in getting certain courses out. For awhile I just took any course to get credits. Now I'm being much more specific about what I want to learn. I think now I'd have a much clearer idea of what it is I want to learn.

I. Would you say that the college experience has provided you with the skills you need for your future job?

R. Yes, college has at least done this for me. I feel it has. By being subjected to many people my own age who are high caliber, things like this. I have become much more able to communicate effectively.

I. Has your college experience changed your social awareness?

R. Yes, to a great extent. It has broadened my ideas of society; all the different people and elements of society.

I. Are there any ideas you brought to college that you won't be taking away?

R. H'mmm, yes, I'm sure there are. The next question is what are they? Well, that is perhaps taxing my memory too much. I just think perhaps there are things there now that weren't there before, things that weren't there before and are now.

I. What do you think you'll be doing five years from now?

R. Five years from now? I hope I will have at least gone on and finished with graduate school and hopefully will be well on my way to fulfilling the job I've talked about. In some way working with ESP.

THE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

The results and interpretations of this study should be viewed with an awareness of previous empirical, research-based investigations conducted since 1960. The purpose of this annotated bibliography is to provide a foundation for understanding and evaluating the findings of this research project. Each included study is designated by title, author, publisher, and date, with an accompanying discussion of the problem (issues and/or hypotheses), population, methodology, and conclusions.

The population section typically reflects the two main elements in our selection criteria: 1) That at least a portion of the subjects have been enrolled in an American high school, college, or university; and 2) With few exceptions, that the students from a given institution have been representative of a cross section of the total student body rather than polarized on any given demographic variable such as socioeconomic status, mental ability, etc.

The methodology section discusses the manner in which the data was collected and analyzed in each study. The research included in this bibliography used the two main approaches of paper and pencil questionnaires and intensive interviewing. Questionnaires typically used items specifically developed for the particular study, and/or previously developed research instruments.

The conclusions sections attempt to summarize those findings related to issues of concern in "Youth and the Meaning of Work." For more complete and detailed conclusions, the original study must be consulted.

Individual study conclusions can be classified as suggesting either demographic or psychographic correlates of occupational choice and career aspirations. Demographic variables thus identified include sex, socioeconomic status, religion, race, and geographic location. Psychographic considerations included life goals, parental and peer group influences, occupational stereotypes, socio-cultural effects, and occupational mobility. Other student attitudes on a wide variety of concerns were investigated as possible correlates of occupational choice and career aspirations. They included attitudes regarding national affairs, working women, government, business, unions, current issues, family size preference, and career plans.

Generalizations regarding the findings in this annotated bibliography are extremely difficult to develop for several reasons. The investigation of a given relationship has seldom been undertaken using more than one population, and in those rare instances where this has occurred, the research instruments were rarely the same.

A second issue for concern has been the reliance of several researchers upon data collected in previous studies. "Second users" of research give rise to the question of relevant use of data for purposes for which it was not intended. Associatively, the strength of the relationships reported by these follow-up studies was often based on two or three questionnaire items, at times appearing to be selected on little more than face validity criteria. Further, the use of data by "second users" or later efforts by the original researcher, tended to extend the latency period from research to publication to an often unfortunate length.

Unfortunately, research findings are often reported with little or no identification of the context in which the data were collected. Possibly relevant social, economic, environmental, philosophical, educational, and personal factors existing at the time of the surveys are rarely included in research results.

However, even with recognition of the above mentioned limitations, the research reviewed in this annotated bibliography has proven to be revealing, productive, informative, and provocative. The findings of these data-based studies provide an evaluative element in the development of viable theories regarding the nature of youth attitudes and the meaning of work.

Contributions to this annotated bibliography have been drawn from the publications of thirty-six professional journals and twelve research institutions and associations, representing educational, private, or governmental efforts. It is our conclusion that the fifty-nine (59) studies reviewed here constitute the bulk of the published empirical research which fell within the parameters of our selection criteria. A listing of the publications which are represented in this annotated bibliography is provided below, with the major sources indicated by an asterisk:

Journals

Adolescence
American Behavioral Scientist
American Journal of Sociology
*American Sociological Review
Fortune
Human Relations
Journal of Applied Psychology
*Journal of Counseling Psychology
Journal of Educational Psychology
Journal of Genetic Psychology
Journal of Social Issues
Marriage and Family Living
Personnel and Guidance Journal
Personnel Psychology
Psychological Reports
Psychology Today
Public Interest
Rural Sociology
*School Review
Social Forces
Sociology of Education
Youth and Society

Research Institutions and Associations

*American College Testing Research Reports
American Council on Education
Gallup International, Inc.
National Merit Scholarship Corporation
National Opinion Research Center of Chicago
North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station

*Purdue Opinion Panel
Research Institute of America
Roper Research Associates
U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare
U. S. Department of Labor: Manpower Planning
University of Missouri Agricultural Experiment Station

TITLE: "Graduates of Predominately Negro Colleges, Class of 1964"
AUTHOR: Joseph H. Fichter, of the National Opinion Research Center
PUBLISHED: U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Public Health Service. No date given.
PROBLEM: Few studies of college graduates, their plans for graduate study and careers have included analysis of data on Negro graduates because few Negroes were included in the survey sample. This study was undertaken to provide data on Negro graduates of colleges with predominately Negro enrollments located mainly in the south.
POPULATION: Fifty schools with predominately Negro enrollment were drawn from a universe of seventy eight-schools. A sample of students (male and female) was then drawn from the total number of expected June, 1964 graduates at each of the fifty schools.
METHODOLOGY: Data collection was accomplished through a paper and pencil questionnaire distributed and collected by an individual mailing process in late May of 1964. The final response rate was 49%. The questionnaire responses provided demographic data, data concerning respondents high school experience, career choice, college experience, plans for graduate school, plans for employment and participation in civil rights activities. Comparisons were made with the Davis Studies throughout the report.
CONCLUSIONS:

1. Negro women have a stronger work orientation than do white women.
2. Negro women college graduates are most likely to plan a career in education or social work.
3. Negro men are likely to be delayed in both starting and finishing college.
4. The Negro who attended a private college had a better high school preparation than one who attended a public college.
5. Negro college graduates plan earlier, decide sooner and are more committed to their career choice than their white counterparts, but Negroes are less likely than white graduates to have a definite job waiting at graduation.
6. The majority of Negro college graduates were not going to graduate school immediately after college graduation, but many plan to do so later.
7. Leaders in civil rights activities are not more optimistic about gaining employment opportunities equal to those for whites.

The study report is liberally supplied with tables and many explanatory footnotes. The chapter entitled "Talented Negro Women" is especially noteworthy.

TITLE: "What They Believe"
AUTHOR: Anonymous
PUBLISHED: Fortune, Vol, 79, No. 7, January, 1969, pp. 70-71, 179-181
PROBLEM: Fortune desired to sample the attitudes of youth over a wide range of concerns: current issues; heroes, villains and identification; parents; basic values; technology; business; and career plans.
POPULATION: Those interviewed were comprised of a group of 719 young men and women, ages 18-24 years. They were believed to be representative on demographic variables but intentionally had included an over-sampling of college students (334).
METHODOLOGY: In October, 1968, Daniel Yankelovich, Inc., conducted the 718 indepth interviews for Fortune. The structured questioning, lasting typically close to one hour, sampled attitudes in each of the seven categories. In analyzing the results, re-weighting was done to adjust for the over sampling of college students. Of particular interest to the researchers was the identification of differences in attitudes between youth who had not attended college, those college students who viewed an education as a practical-minded undertaking aimed at the improvement of their social status, and those "forerunner" college

students who were concerned with improvement in existing systems.
CONCLUSIONS: Generalizing over the data reported, *Fortune* identified two noteworthy findings:

1. There was "an extraordinary rejection of traditional American values by the forerunner group."
2. Strong similarities were observed between the beliefs expressed by the practical group and those of the youths who had not attended college.

Many additional interesting hypotheses can be derived through a review of the percentile data presented in the article.

TITLE: "Patterns of Female Intergenerational Occupational Mobility: A Comparison With Male Patterns of Intergenerational Occupational Mobility"
AUTHORS: Peter DeJong, Milton Brawer and Stanley Robin
PUBLISHED: *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 36, December, 1971, pp. 1033-1042.
PROBLEM: This study questioned traditional assumptions concerning differences between male and female occupational mobility.
POPULATION: National Opinion Research Center data, obtained from six samples, in the years 1955 to 1965, was combined to provide the data for this study. The 2,371 females used in the study were all 21 or older and had all been active in the labor force. Data from the male sample of 20,700 men was obtained from a study by Blaw and Duncan (1962). The age range of males was 20 to 62 years old. They had worked in the civilian, non-institutional population of the U. S.
METHODOLOGY: An analysis was performed on female intergenerational occupational mobility patterns within the American occupational structure as compared with those patterns of males. Data from the sample population regarding their own occupations and those of their fathers was classified according to the 1950 census. The measure of intergenerational mobility used was one of a mobility ratio, testing for variation reflecting statistical independence.
CONCLUSIONS: The study examined eight aspects of mobility with the finding that there are no major differences between the male and female intergenerational occupational mobility patterns. The authors found these findings to be in contradiction to those predictions and explanations of prior investigators. Consequently, the authors questioned the accuracy and applicability of prior theory and analysis of female roles; they called for reevaluations of the assertation that females derive their social status from males; and they questioned assumptions concerning continued status homogeneity of the family.

TITLE: "Great Aspirations: Volume I, Career Decisions and Educational Plans During College"
AUTHOR: James A. Davis
PUBLISHED: National Opinion Research Center, University of Chicago
PROBLEM: "Great Aspirations: is a study of the career preferences and post-graduate training plans of June 1961 bachelor's degree recipients in American colleges and universities. A generalized concern about the supply and demand for highly trained man and woman power formed the basis of the study.
POPULATION: Data was collected in the spring of 1961 from 33,982 June graduates sampled from 135 colleges and universities. The sample was designed to be representative of June 1961 graduates receiving degrees from accredited degree-granting institutions. In addition to those from accredited institutions, graduates of the very largest non-accredited bachelor's degree-granting institutions were included.
METHODOLOGY: A self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data from 33,982 June graduates from 135 colleges and universities in the spring of 1961. All of the 135 sampled schools agreed to cooperate in the study. Approximately 85% of the eligible students completed the pre-coded questionnaire.

CONCLUSIONS: The majority of the surveyed college seniors anticipate graduate study in the immediate future or later. 60% had definite plans for graduate study, with 19% of these already accepted in a graduate school for fall 1961. 15% planned graduate study, but had no definite date in mind. 34% were not planning further study and of these, 18% did not want such study. The remaining 6% would like to go on, but were prevented from doing so by barriers. Financial barriers were the major factors preventing these students from planning further study. Among male students, lower socioeconomic status was associated with perceived financial barriers. 33% of the college seniors were anticipating careers in education, 18% in business, 11% in social science and humanities and 9% in engineering. With respect to future employment, 35% of the sample indicated they expect to be employed in elementary or secondary education, 24% in a large business, 15% by a college or university and 14% by the federal government. This total is in excess of 100% due to multiple checking. Annotation cannot begin to describe the extensive data compiled and analyzed in this study. Included here are correlates of choice of particular fields (values, sex, socioeconomic status), career field recruitment and turnover and a multitude of cross tabulations that are of interest to researchers in this area together with extensive tables and charts.

TITLE: "Undergraduate Career Decisions: Correlates of Occupational Choice"
AUTHOR: James A. Davis
PUBLISHED: NORC Monographs in Social Research #2, Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1965.
This book concerns itself with the two chapters on the undergraduate years, which first appeared in Davis' "Great Aspirations." Davis notes that chapter one and appendix one of "Great Aspirations" appear as appendix one and appendix two in "Undergraduate Career Decisions." Appendixes 3 to 6 are identical in both volumes. Therefore, our descriptions of POPULATION AND METHODOLOGY provided in this annotated bibliography with regard to "Great Aspirations," in addition to the pertinent sections of PROBLEM and CONCLUSIONS, may be consulted for a review of the considerations in "Undergraduate Career Decisions: Correlated of Occupational Choice."

TITLE: "Influence of the 'Religious Factor' on Career Plans and Occupational Values of College Graduates"
AUTHOR: Andrew M. Greeley
PUBLISHED: The American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 68, No. 6, pp. 658-671
PROBLEM: The author tested seven hypotheses regarding the possible use of religion, specifically Catholicism, as a predictor of career plans and occupational values. These hypotheses suggested that Catholics will be less likely to go to college than peers of other religions, and that of those who do, fewer will go to graduate school. If attending graduate school, they will be less likely to choose academic fields, with a very minimal possibility that they will choose physical sciences or plan a research career. These conditions are moderated by the strength of the religious adherence of the student. Fianlly, it was hypothesized that Catholics will tend to overchoose large corporations as employers, business as an occupation and security and the avoidance of high pressure as occupational values.
POPULATION & METHODOLOGY: The student data used in this paper was obtained in a 1961 research survey by the National Opinion Research Center when some 35,000 college and university graduates were questionnaire respondents in a study of career plans, academic experiences and occupational values. (For a more complete description, consult the POPULATION AND METHODOLOGY sections for "Undergraduate Career Decisions" by J. A. Davis contained in this annotated

bibliography.)
CONCLUSIONS: The only hypotheses supported by the data were those which suggested an over choice of business careers by Catholics. It appears that Catholics, particularly those from low socioeconomic status levels, choose business careers as a favorite path of upward mobility. Additionally, no substantial evidence of an anti-intellectualism syndrome, as suggested in other literature, was found among Catholic college graduates.

TITLE: "Interest Change as a Function of Persistence and Transfer from an Engineering Major"
AUTHORS: Ronald G. Taylor and Gary R. Hanson
PUBLISHED: Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol, 19, No. 2, March, 1972, pp. 130-135.
PROBLEM: The authors tried to determine the affect on vocational interests of students who decided to persist in a college of engineering as compared to those who had decided to transfer from one.
POPULATION: The subjects were entering freshman at the University of Minnesota in 1966. The final sample size was 116, composed of 77 persisters and 39 transfers.
METHODOLOGY: All subjects completed the Strong Vocational Interest Blank in the summer of 1966 and a second time in the spring of 1969. The data obtained from the SVIB's coupled with information concerning students' majors, served as the research data. Multiple discriminant analysis was used to test for groups differentiated by dependent variables. Standard significance tests were applied.
CONCLUSIONS: The major findings of the study appeared as follows:

1. Analysis of the results following the administering of the first SVIB revealed significant differences on only 11 of 81 individual scale comparisons. Of these 11, only 3 seem relevant: the average eventual college transfer scored one standard deviation below the mean on chemist and engineering scales, and they described themselves as more extroverted than the persister group.
2. Following the second administering of the SVIB, it appeared that there was substantial consistency in the interest profiles of the persisters, while the profiles of the transfers changed dramatically.
3. The general influence of the university environment was seen to have affected changes in the profiles of both groups.

In summary, Taylor and Hanson state that, "Persisting and transferring from a college of engineering is related to the direction and form of interest change.'

TITLE: "Perceived Parental Attitudes and Parental Identification in Relation to Field of Vocational Choice"
AUTHOR: Richard J. Brunkan
PUBLISHED: Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 12, No. 1, 1965, pp. 39-47
PROBLEM: The author attempted to explore the relationship of perceived parental attitudes and parental identification of male college students to the sons' "probable," "possible," and "fantasy" vocational choices.
POPULATION: The subjects were 298 sophomore, junior and senior undergraduate males enrolled in psychology courses at the University of Iowa who had lived with their fathers or step-fathers till at least the age of 14.
METHODOLOGY: The following research instruments were administered to groups of subjects in late 1962 and early 1963:

a) The Semantic Differential (SD) was used to measure parental identification;
b) Perceived parental attitudes were measured by the Family Relationship Inventory (FRI) developed by Brunkan and Crites (1964);
c) Trow's (1941) Vocational Choice Inventory (VCI) was used to identify

"probable," "possible," and "fantasy" vocational choices.
Analysis of variance was the statistical manipulation used in analyzing the data.
CONCLUSIONS: There were no significant relationships between the independent variables of perceived parental attitudes and degree of parental identification and the dependent variable of vocational choice. However, a with-in group correlation showed that sons identify significantly more with their fathers than their mothers and that there is a significant difference in the perception of their fathers as they are seen in reality as opposed to how the sons envisioned an ideal father.

TITLE: "Sex and Age Differences in Occupational Values"
AUTHOR: Morton Wagman
PUBLISHED: The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 44, No. 3, November 1965, pp. 258-262
PROBLEM: The author intended to study the occupational value preferences of university students and compare them with the findings of Centers' (1949) sample of adult males and Singer and Steffle's (1954) sample of high school seniors.
POPULATION: The sample studied was composed of 122 male and 137 female sophomore students enrolled in an introductory psychology course at the University of Illinois. The mean age of the sample was 19 and their social class ranged from lower to upper middle class.
METHODOLOGY: In the spring of 1962, Centers' Job Values and Desires questionnaire was administered to the above-mentioned subjects. Chi-squares were run on sex differences in job values and desires between university and high school males and females. Chi-squares were also calculated for age differences between high school, university, and adult males and between high school and university females.
CONCLUSIONS: Generalizing from the comparative data, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. In terms of a foremost consideration, the high school senior group preferred security and independence in job selection whereas the university sample preferred that the job be interesting. The adult male group also preferred security and independence.
2. Both high school and university females ranked high on the social service job value scale in contrast to the high school and university males who ranked high on the job value of esteem.

Note: Since the university sample was not a random one, generalization is limited. Intervening variables to be considered are differences in level of education, socioeconomic background, degree of dedication to future plans and unemployment levels during the periods studies.

TITLE: "Effect of Occupational Prestige and Attitude Similarity on Attraction as a Function of Assumed Similarity of Attitude"
AUTHORS: Michael Bond, Donn Byrne, and Michael J. Diamond
PUBLISHED: Psychological Reports, Vol, 23, December, 1968, pp. 1167-1172
PROBLEM: The authors wish to test the hypotheses that occupational prestige is a determinant of attraction if other information is limited; and to determine whether assumed similarity between two persons has a function in the prestige-attraction relationship.
POPULATION: The subjects of the study were 139 students (93 males, 46 females) enrolled in an introductory psychology course at Stanford University.
METHODOLOGY: The authors began the experiment, early in the quarter, by asking the 139 students to complete a 56-item attitude scale (Byrne & Nelson, 1964). The scale measured the students' views on a variety of attitudes. The experimental part of the study began three to eight weeks later. This section was

conducted in a series of small groups. Eight different conditions were created: two conditions dealt with occupational information only; two conditions dealt with attitudinal information only; and four conditions dealt with both types of infromation. The subjects were given information about an unknown individual and were asked to estimate certain attitudes he may have. The occupational information group was given a short paragraph describing either a bus driver or a doctor. The attitudinal information group received a 10-item attitudinal scale (drawn from the Byrne and Nelson scale) supposedly completed by the unknown person along with the above occupation. The Constant Discrepancy Pattern (Byrne) associated the subjects' attitudes to the attitudes given about the unknown person. The occupational and attitudinal group received the same information as the other groups, but the order of presentation was counterbalanced.

CONCLUSIONS: Attraction to a member of the opposite sex is significantly influenced by either occupational information alone or attitudinal information alone. However, when occupational and attitudinal information are combined, the subjects answered to the attitudinal similarity only. The findings indicate that the mutual attraction of two persons is based on assumed similarity.

TITLE: "Sex and Job Orientation:
AUTHOR: Showkry D. Saleh, Mansur Lalljee
PUBLISHED: Personnel Psychology, Vol. 22, Winter, 1969, pp. 465-471

PROBLEM: The authors wished to test differences in job orientation with respect to the sex variable while controlling for other major variables.

POPULATION: The authors conducted three studies on three different types of subjects. The first sample consisted of 40 males and 44 females enrolled in the sophomore class of a midwestern university. The second group involved 68 male and 33 female public school teachers selected on a random basis from a city of 120,000 population. The third study tested 259 males and 143 females employed in a technical division of a large service-oriented organization.

METHODOLOGY: Saleh and Lalljee employed different research methods for the three samples. The college students were given the "Job Attitude Scale" (JAS), (Saleh, 1964) in a group session. The scale tests intrinstic versus extrinsic job orientation factors. The age difference within the group was not significant. The JAS was given to the school teachers as well. The age difference was not seen as psychologically significant and the standard educational level was high school graduation. A questionnaire was distributed to 50% of the company's workers (600); 402 were completed and returned. The questionnaire was an attitude survey which required the subject to rank intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Two subgroups were tested further (by the JAS) since the number of males and females equated was low with regard to education, job level, and age in the division. One subgroup consisted of clerks and the other involved supervisors.

CONCLUSIONS: The first sample, that of college students, could not be differentiated in job orientation by their sex; intrinsic factors were selected more often. The second sample, that of school teachers, showed no sex differences, but selected intrinsic factors as often as extrinsic factors. The third sample, of company employees, displayed significant differences between the two subgroups. However, when other variables were controlled, no sex differences were found in job orientation. Intrinsic orientation was found to be positively correlated with the higher job levels.

TITLE: "Differences in Perception of Desired Job Characteristics of the Opposite Sex"
AUTHOR: Ronald J. Burke
PUBLISHED: The Journal of Genetic Psychology, Vol. 109, 1966, pp. 27-36

PROBLEM: The author wished to determine the relative importance of job characteristics which satisfy the need for self-actualization (e.g. Challenges Ability) to those which represent environmental factors descriptive of the job (e.g. Good Salary). He was also interested in the extent to which one sex could predict the other's job characteristics preferences.
POPULATION: Thirty-two female and 85 male college students enrolled in an introductory psychology course.
METHODOLOGY: The above 32 female and 85 male college students enrolled in an introductory psychology course were asked to rank 10 job characteristics in order of importance to themselves and also to rank these same characteristics in order of importance to a person of the opposite sex.
CONCLUSIONS: There was a striking similarity in the rankings of males and females. Both groups ranked characteristics which lead to satisfaction of the need to grow within the occupation over the characteristics which describes a pleasant working environment. Males incorrectly predicted the job characteristics the women would choose as most important; however, females were correct in their prediction of the preferred job characteristics of the males. The male inaccuracy was in greatly overestimating the importance of characteristics descriptive of a pleasant working environment and greatly underestimating the importance of characteristics conducive to self-realization for a female.

TITLE: "The Value of College to Different Subcultures"
AUTHOR: Lionel S. Lewis
PUBLISHED: School Review, Vol. 77, No. 1, March, 1969, pp. 32-40
PROBLEM: The author wished to isolate members of the four student subcultures devised by Traw and Clark, and to ascertain the effects of their college experience. These subcultures are classified as academic, collegiate, nonconformist and consumer-vocational.
POPULATION: In the fall of 1966, a sample of 646 undergraduates was obtained from a large, northeastern state university. The students represented six different major fields of concentration: arts and humanities, engineering, behavioral science, education, physical science and business and commerce.
METHODOLOGY: Of the 646 questionnaires obtained, it was possible to place 401 in one of the 4 subculture categories. This was done in accord with the response made to two questions: "how important is the stimulation of new ideas in college" and "how close do you feel to college." Questions from the questionnaire gave evidence to the degree of autonomy, idealism and intellectualism.
CONCLUSIONS:

1) The academic subculture is said to be composed of students who are both involved with ideas and identify with their school. A small percentage of these are in college to obtain a degree, more than they are interested in developing resources to become autonomous persons. This subculture also manifests the most humanitarianism.
2) The collegiate subculture is not involved with ideas, but does identify with their school. They participate less in intellectual activities, only one-fifth are concerned with developing their resources and they scored low on idealism.
3) Those who are involved with ideas, but do not identify with their school make up the nonconformist group. Their trend is very similar to that of the academic subculture.
4) The consumer vocational subculture is not involved with ideas and does not identify with the school. They were similar to the collegiate group -- being concerned with social activities, but maintaining the aim of achieving a degree.

The article provides in-depth description of the characteristics and attitudes of these four subcultures.

TITLE: "Life Goals and Vocational Choice"
AUTHORS: Alexander W. Astin and Robert C. Nichols
PUBLISHED: Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 48, February, 1964, pp. 50-58
PROBLEM: The authors sought to define the social, personal, and vocational life goals of a sample of high aptitude college seniors and to determine relationships between these students' goals and career choices.
POPULATION: 3,830 male and 1,665 female 1957 National Merit Scholarship Finalists comprised the high aptitude college sample.
METHODOLOGY: A 55-item questionnaire, composed of 26 items measuring vocational, personal and social aspirations, and 29 self-evaluation items measuring personality traits, was mailed to 8,489 National Merit Finalists in the spring of 1961 before they graduated from college. Factor analysis of life-goal and self-rating items were computed for each of the two sexes. Male and female subjects were divided into 19 and 17 prospective career groups respectively, with N's in each ranging from 20 to 615.
CONCLUSIONS:

1) Differences between sexes in terms of life goals show that men tend to be more concerned with achievement in science and technology, with gaining prestige and making more money than do women who seem more concerned with social service and teaching aspirations, with altruism and personal comfort. However, some of these sex differences are reversed when career choice is held constant.
2) Discrepancies in life-goals between some of the above mentioned career groups are large, and even within career groups considerable variability of certain life-goals exists.

Further exploration of the following proposition is suggested: life-goals are important determiners of career choice and possibly of satisfaction with that choice.

TITLE: "Life Values and Work Values"
AUTHORS: John F. Kinnane and Joseph R. Gaubinger
PUBLISHED: Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 10, No. 4, 1963, pp. 362-367
PROBLEM: The author wished to show that the life values of freshmen males as measured by the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values (AVL) have a significant and positive correlation with their work values.
POPULATION: The sample consisted of 143 freshmen males whose major fields of study included liberal arts, social sciences, fine arts, architecture, engineering and science.
METHODOLOGY: Two research instruments, the AVL and a modified form of the Work Values Inventory (WVI) devised by Super and Overstreet (1960) and revised by the authors, were used to measure life values and work values, respectively. Pearson product moment correlations were computed for each of the pairs of values: 1) AVL Theoretical and WVI Heuristic-Creative; 2) AVL Economic and WVI Security-Economic-Material; 3) AVL Social and WVI Social-Artistic; 4) AVL Aesthetic and WVI Independence-Variety; and 5) AVL Religious and WVI Social-Artistic.
CONCLUSIONS: All five pairs relating life values to work values were significantly correlated at .01 level of confidence. The above correlations suggested the following general conclusions:

1) In a work situation, the AVL theoretical man values theory and achievement.
2) Although AVL Economic and Political values are related, the AVL Economic man values working conditions and associates more than the work itself, whereas the AVL Political man values the financial and security benefits of work more than the intrinsic values of work itself.

3) Although the AVL Aesthetic and Religious values were shown to be positively related in previous research in a work situation the AVL aesthetic man values Variety-Independence and Achievement-Prestige whereas the AVL Religious man is apt to have a social welfare orientation in the occupational setting.
4) The AVL Social man is high in social values and achievement which may reflect a responsibility toward social problems.

TITLE: "Personality and Career Aspirations Among Young Technologists"
AUTHOR: Theodore N. Ferdinand
PUBLISHED: Human Relations, Vol. 22, April, 1969, pp. 121-135
PROBLEM: The author wished to determine how a group of science and engineering students orient themselves toward their careers, and what types of background factors constitute their orientations.
POPULATION: During the autumn of 1963, 460 senior engineering and science students, enrolled in two large New England universities, received a questionnaire through the mail. Sixty-nine percent (69%), or 320 questionnaires, were completed and returned. Seventy students were chosen from the first sample; they were stratified according to their grade point average, their university, and their marital status.
METHODOLOGY: During the spring of 1964, the seventy subjects were given extensive interviews in order to determine their personal background and career aspirations. From information received during the interview or on the questionnaire, the researchers specified 11 personality traits that the subjects indicated in reference to their own professional interests and competencies: Intellectuality, Volatility, Intuitivity, Tangitivity, Sensitivity, Communality, Realism, Self Esteem, Ascendancy, Idealism and Methodicity. The interviewers then placed each student they had interviewed on a high-to-low degree continuum according to each particular dimension the subject displayed. Interviewers were able to supply information for 67 students, or ninety-six percent (96%) of the cases. Analysis revealed that the 11 personality traits coalesced into separate types that specified four distinct groups of people. The researchers believe that these four 'character types' are important because they are associated with the students 'personalities in relation to the technologists' functions and careers. The four 'character types' are termed: Rationalist, Conventionalist, Pragmatist, and Activist. A reliability check related the 'character type' of each student to the personality trait ratings.
CONCLUSIONS: The Rationalist places a high value on rationality dominating every facet of his personality. The Conventionalist typically limits his actions to only the accepted and conventional forms of behavior. The greatest concern of the Pragmatist is to attain personal independence. The Activist's emotional state chiefly determines his thoughts and actions. The fraction of students of each 'character type' attaining better than a "C+" average in academic pursuits was found to be" two-thirds of the Rationalists, one-half of the Conventionallists, one-fourth of the Pragmatists, and one-fifth of the Activists. The chosen professions among the Rationalists and the Conventionalists were found to be physics and electrical engineering. Mechancial, civil and chemical engineering appeal to the Pragmatists and the Activists to a greater degree.

TITLE: "Effects of Teacher and Peer Subcultures Upon Student Aspirations:
AUTHORS: Donald L. Thistlethwaite and Norman Wheeler
PUBLISHED: Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 57, No. 1, 1966, pp. 35-47
PROBLEM: The authors sought to determine the effects of college upon aspirations to seek graduate or professional degrees. They further sought to develop multiple regression equations for predicting terminal dispositions toward advance study.

POPULATION: In 1959, an initial mail survey was sent to high school graduates a few weeks prior to their entrance into college. These students were from an initial population of 300,000 representing those who had scored in the 64 percentile rank or better in a national aptitude test taken during the junior year of high school. A second mail survey was sent to those students from the initial sample who had enrolled in one of the 140 most popular colleges or universities. The student who replied had completed his sophomore year of college. The third and final mail survey included those from the first two surveys who would graduate in 1963. Thus, the resultant sample size was 2,919. It should be noted here that the authors identified three important response biases which could affect the research findings.
METHODOLOGY: In addition to the population selection process, the study involved several other methodological considerations. Survey questions were directed toward determining the students' advanced study aspirations and the degree to which they had achieved entry to educational institutions. It also obtained information on eight precollege characteristics. Data evaluation included regression, standardization, and cross-validation analysis. Finally, a set of independent variables were incorporated as measures of the college invironment and of college experiences.
CONCLUSIONS: Among the findings of the authors were the following:

1. The results from the first mail survey showed that at the beginning of college fifty-two percent (52%) of the panel members planned to obtain graduate or professional degrees. This percentage increased to sixty-one percent (61%) by the second mail survey and to eighty-four percent (84%) at the completion of the students' college educations.
2. Substantial disparity was observed between aspirations and entry behaviors. This disparity was twenty-seven percent (27%) for men and fifty-one percent for women (51%). The difference between the sexes was attributed to experience often required before pursuing a graduate degree in education, a prominent major choice for women.
3. Only about twenty-five percent (25%) of the variance in terminal aspiration levels was accounted for on the basis of the eight precollege characteristics with three of these - initial aspiration level, sex, and National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test score - accounting for virtually all of the predicted criterion variance.

TITLE: "Place Of Residence as a Factor in Housing Desires and Expectations"
AUTHORS: J. E. Montgomery and J. E. Kivlin
PUBLISHED: Rural Sociology, Vol. 27, December, 1962, pp. 483-491
PROBLEM: The authors wished to examine housing desired and expectations of college students as compared to the place of residence of their parents.
POPULATION: The sample consisted of 1,947 undergraduate college women enrolled at Oregon State College, The Pennsylvania State University, The University of Minnesota and The University of Tennessee. Data was collected from 1,350 home economics students and from 597 "liberal arts" or non-professional majors. The authors were aware of the limitations of their sample.
METHODOLOGY: In the spring of 1960, the questionnaire was completed. Analysis showed that forty-four percent (44%) of the students were from homes located in urban areas and twenty-five percent (25%) from suburban areas. These were combined to represent the non-rural population. Seven percent (7%) of the students were from villages, sixteen percent (16%) from farms of ranches and six percent (6%) from open country. These were grouped as rural youth. The remaining percentage did not indicate where their parents lived.
CONCLUSIONS: The hypothesis that, with few exceptions, the housing desires and expectations of rural college students would be similar to those of

nonrural students was supported. However, at the same time, the place of residence of parents was found to be related to the locations students desired and expected for their first houses.

TITLE: "Differences in Perception of Desired Job Characteristics of the Same and the Opposite Sex"
AUTHOR: Ronald J. Burke
PUBLISHED: The Journal of Genetic Psychology, Vol. 109, 1966, pp. 37-46
PROBLEM: The author was interested in further investigation of the extent to which individuals can correctly predict the importance of job characteristics of their own sex and for the opposite sex.
METHODOLOGY: Fifty-four male and sixteen female college students enrolled in an introductory industrial psychology class were asked to rank ten job characteristics in order of importance to self, to members of the same sex and to members of the opposite sex. The characteristics listed represented factors which described a good working environment and factors which would be conducive to self-actualization personal growth on the job.
CONCLUSIONS: Males and females showed a consensus in their order of preferred characteristics, ranking factors leading to self-actualization over all others. Females correctly predicted opposite sex preference orders, but males were not correct in their predictions for females. Neither sex was correct in its predictions of job characteristic preferences for members of the same sex. The inaccuracies consisted of over-estimating the importance of characteristics that were actually less important, for example those characteristics associated with a favorable working climate.

TITLE: "The Private Generation: Absolute Priority on the Personal: A Major New Study Charts Students' withdrawal into the Self"
AUTHOR: Jeffrey K. Hadden
PUBLISHED: Psychology Today, Vol. 3, No. 5, October, 1969, pp. 32-35, 68-69
PROBLEM: Psychology Today desired to survey college students and assess their views, opinions and attitudes on work and life style.
POPULATION: In 1968, a national sample of 2,000 college students was asked to respond to the questionnaire designed by the author. Nearly two-thirds of the students returned the questionnaire.
METHODOLOGY: 246 questions were put to the subjects. Most were statements and were responded to on a five point Likert scale.
CONCLUSIONS: Generally there emerged a paradoxical picture of the student who commits himself to "privatism", to his own separate life and career, but at the same time, to the opposing idealism of social awareness and involvement.

TITLE: "Paternal Influence on Career Choice"
AUTHOR: Charles E. Werts
PUBLISHED: Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 15, No. 1, 1968, pp. 48-52
PROBLEM: The author sought support for his hypothesis that within a given socioeconomic level sons are likely to choose occupations "similar" to their father's.
POPULATION: The sample studied was 76, 015 male college freshmen at 246 four year colleges and universities varying broadly in size, type, quality, geographic location and socioeconomic level of incoming students.
METHODOLOGY: In the fall of 1961, during the registration of incoming freshmen, each student was requested to fill out a short information form asking for; 1) probable future occupation; 2) father's occupation; and 3) sex (male or female). The percentage of sons in each career-choice category, as outlined in the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB), was computed for each father's

occupation.
CONCLUSIONS: Three broad types of occupational interests corresponding to the SVIB Physical Sciences, Social Sciences, and Medical Occupation groupings seem to be passed from father to son. The author hastened to add, however, that because large numbers of students fell into the category of "undecided," in terms of probable occupation or were "not elsewhere classified," these comparisons should be cautiously accepted.

TITLE: "Self-Esteem as a Moderator of the Relationship Between Self-Perceived Abilities and Vocational Choice"
AUTHOR: Abraham K. Korman
PUBLISHED: Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 51, No. 1, 1967, pp. 65-67
PROBLEM: The study was conducted to test the hypothesis that students with high self-esteem will more probably choose occupations which they feel will require their abilities, while it would be less likely for low self-esteem students to choose jobs congruent with their abilities.
POPULATION: Seventy male and fifty-six female lower-division students at an Eastern university comprised the sample. Each claimed to have a rather definite occupation in mind.
METHODOLOGY: On the basis of rank within the group, the sample was divided into high and low self-esteem groups. The Ghiselli Self-Descriptive Inventory, the Ability-Assessment Questionnaire and the Career Description Questionnaire were used to measure self-esteem, self-perceived abilities and occupationally required abilities. A questionnaire designed by the author was used to determine vocational choice. The questionnaires were completed during regular sessions of an introductory psychology class.
CONCLUSIONS: The results of the study support the notion that high self-esteem students predict that they will be able to cope with the ability requirements of their chosen career. On the other hand, individuals with low self-esteem, those who feel they are inadequate and incompetent, tend to choose an occupation which does not require the application of all of their skills or an occupation where they feel they will not be competent. Thus, self-esteem is a factor to consider when analyzing the choice of occupation.

TITLE: "Gallup Opinion Index - Special Report on the Attitudes of College Students"
AUTHORS: George Gallup, Jr. and John Davis III
PUBLISHED: Gallup International, Inc., Princeton, 1969
PROBLEM: This Gallup Poll was designed to provide a national sample of the attitudes of college students on a variety of issues.
POPULATION: Using careful control techniques, twenty students from 55 institutions were interviewed. These 1,030 students and the schools from which they were selected, represented conformance with approximate distributions of many relevant demographic variables.
METHODOLOGY: The personal interviews were conducted between April 23 and May 17, 1969, at different locations on the various campuses which minimized the concern for an abnormally high proportion of students from any one field of study.
CONCLUSIONS: Among the Poll's findings were several with implications for "Youth and the Meaning of Work."

1. Although a great deal of uncertainty is shown by the students with regard to their immediate post-college occupations and life goals, traditional goals of earning a great deal of money or of making one's mark in the world have decreased in importance. The largest percentage of the students, twenty-nine percent (29%) stated their expectation to be in the teaching field at the age 40. The next highest ranked choices were

business management and housewife, both with eight percent (8%).

2. A strong trend toward liberal political beliefs was indicated by the students following self descriptions:

Extremely conservative	- two percent	- 2%
Fairly conservative	- nineteen percent	- 19%
Middle-of-the-road	- twenty-four percent	- 24%
Fairly liberal	- forty-one percent	- 41%
Extremely liberal	- twelve percent	- 12%

3. The student population showed a tendency to reject party labels with forty-four percent (44%) identifying themselves as Independents as opposed to twenty-nine percent (29%) of the general public.

TITLE: "Educational Choices and Expectations of Male Students Entering a Midwestern University"
AUTHORS: Herbert F. Lionberger, C. L. Gregory, and H. C. Chang
PUBLISHED: University of Missouri, Agricultural Experiment Station, Research Bulletin 923, March, 1967.
PROBLEM: The researchers wished to learn: the importance that male freshmen students assign to reasons for enrollment at the University; the process by which they arrive at these decisions; whether student orientation types could be revealed from the above reasons; and the incidence of the students' goal orientations, by school.
POPULATION: The random sample included 300 male freshmen students enrolled in the colleges of arts and sciences, (100 students), agriculture (100 students), engineering (51 students), and education (49 students). Of the students enrolled, fifty-five percent (55%) came from urban areas, fourteen percent (14%) came from rural non-farm areas, and thrity-one percent (31%) came from farm areas.
METHODOLOGY: During the fall, 1964, semester, the subjects completed questionnaires supplying information about themselves and the situational and time conditions that pertained to their college entrance decisions. The significance placed on the reasons for college enrollment was acquired by means of a 64-item Q-sort which included a sample of universal reasons for college entrance. The researchers utilized a "self-sort" which provided information on a respondent's "own view"; but, an "other-sort" analysis, indicating how other students would rank reasons, was procured from the College of Agriculture students for comparative views. Student types were designated through factor analysis of replies and correlation of student answers with the constructed types. The incidence of student orientation by school, rural social areas, and occupational background was determined by the above analysis.
CONCLUSIONS: The significant reasons given for college attendance correspond closely with occupational goals and plans. Other reasons concerned humanitarian interests, status achievement, well-rounded education, and a desire for a sense of fulfillment within a social context. The data gathered on reasons "other students" attend college indicated that the subjects viewed themselves as more academically oriented than the social or self-oriented "other students." The decision-making process for college entrance was, for most students, a long-term consideration. Forty-five percent (45%) of the students considered college while in their early grades. The reasons given by students for enrolling in their particular school in the university were placed in seven types of student orientations by the authors. The seven basic enrollment reasons included: secondary status achievement; extrinstic reward; lukewarm collegiates; interlude; escape; adventure; and social adjustment.

TITLE: "The Beliefs and Attitudes of Male College Seniors, Freshmen and Alumni"
AUTHOR: A ROPER REPORT prepared for Standard Oil Company (New Jersey)
PUBLISHED: The Roper Research Associates were commissioned to conduct a comprehensive study into the values, beliefs, philosophies and ambitions of college students and on their attitudes toward basic institutions in the United States -- political, business, religious and educational.
POPULATION: In order to perform trend analysis, the research involved data input from three population sources; freshmen and senior college students, and college alumni. The all male sample was drawn from a random selection of 100 colleges (actually 96 colleges with 4 double weightings) representing a proportional distribution of all U. S. colleges as guaged by type, size of male student body and geographic location. Ten (10) seniors and five (5) freshmen were involved from each institution resulting in a total undergraduate sample of 1,500 students. The alumni sample of 1,091 were graduates of the same schools from which the undergraduate sample was chosen.
METHODOLOGY: The preselected undergraduate males were interviewed on campus by trained interviewers between the dates of December 4, 1968, and January 31, 1969. The alumni survey was conducted by mail.
CONCLUSIONS: Among the major findings of the study were the following which represented the positions of the senior undergraduates:

1. With regard to the four basic institutions, the students found all to be "basically sound," though believing all in need of improvement.
2. More seniors had "great confidence" in the leaders of education, forty-four percent (44%) than thirty-eight percent (38%) in the leaders of business, or twenty-five percent (25%) in politics to make real contributions to our society.
3. The college experience was found to be either very or moderately satisfactory by eighty-eight percent (88%) of the senior population.
4. Approximately two-thirds of all seniors said they see eye-to eye with their parents on most things.

TITLE: "A Description of American College Freshmen"
AUTHORS: Clifford Abe, John L. Holland, S.W. Lutz and J. M. Richards, Jr.
PUBLISHED: American College Testing Research Reports, March, 1965, No. 1
PROBLEM: The authors sought to achieve a more complete description of the American freshman and to determine what variations existed among students from different colleges.
POPULATION: The study involved 6,289 male and 6,143 female college freshmen in 31 institutions of whom seven percent (7%) were enrolled in junior colleges, twelve percent (12%) in four-year undergraduate colleges and eighty-one percent (81%) in universitites. Eighty-five percent (85%) of the students were attending public colleges and ninety-five percent (95%) attended coeducational colleges. Student enrollment in college by geographic region was as follows: twenty percent (20%) in the Northeast; thirty-one percent (31%) in the South; twenty percent (20%) in the Midwest; twenty-six percent (26%) in the Mountains and Plains states; and three percent (3%) in colleges on the West Coast. Participation rates of freshmen in colleges varied from twenty-two percent (22%) to ninety-six percent (96%). Variations in participations were believed a function of administrative approaches rather than student interest levels.
METHODOLOGY: In April or May of 1964, freshmen from the various institutions filled out the American College Survey in English classes, chapels and convocations, or in dormitories and their homes. The Survey contains a series of sections planned to elicit a student's achievements, aspirations, attitudes, interests, potentials, values and background.
CONCLUSIONS: The authors' findings were presented in three sections:

educational implications, variations among colleges and the typical college student. Our interest here is in the last of these areas. The typical male college student is likely to show more diversity in major field choice than his female counterpart and also tends to have higher economic aspirations. Both sexes, however, tend to be "well satisfied with their selection of vocation and have high aspirations for their future vocational achievement." In the Survey section which offered the students a selection among 35 life goals, the findings were viewed as generally congruent with the values of "self interest and privatism" attributed to the typical college student in 1957 by P. E. Jacob. Attendance at religious services was markedly different between the sexes, with forty-three percent (43%) of the males stating that they "practically never attend religious services while at college," as contrasted with only twenty-four percent (24%) of the females giving this response. Finally, the authors state that women are characterized by their social interest, musical and dramatic arts potential and homemaking competencies, while the men are characterized by their interests in scientific and technical occupations, leadership and scientific potentials, scientific achievement and technical and athletic competencies.

TITLE: "A Description of College Freshmen: I. Students With Different Choices of Major Field"
AUTHORS: Clifford Abe and John L. Holland
PUBLISHED: American College Testing Research Reports, May, 1965, No. 3
PROBLEM: The authors purpose in this study was to report a description of college freshmen who plan to major in different fields of study.
POPULATION: The study involved 6,289 male and 6,143 female college freshmen in 31 institutions of whom seven percent (7%) were enrolled in junior colleges, twelve percent (12%) in four-year undergraduate colleges and eighty-one percent (81%) in universities. Eighty-five percent (85%) of the students were attending public colleges and ninety-five percent (95%) attended coeducational colleges. Student enrollment in college by geographic region was as follows: twenty percent (20%) in the Northeast; thirty-one percent (31%) in the South; twenty percent (20%) in the Midwest; twenty-six percent (26%) in the Mountains and Plains states; and three percent (3%) in colleges on the West Coast. Participation rates of freshmen in colleges varied from twenty-two (22%) to ninety-six percent (96%). Variations in participations were believed a function of administrative approaches rather than student interest levels.
METHODOLOGY: In April or May of 1964, freshmen from the various institutions filled out the American College Survey in English classes, chapels and convocations, or in dormitories and their homes. The Survey contains a series of sections planned to elicit a student's achievements, aspirations, attitudes, interests, potentials, values and background.
CONCLUSIONS: The major fields were grouped into 13 conventional academic areas; students' distinguishing characteristics were indicated in generalized forms. Examples of the authors' findings are in part as follows:
Education: Men planning to major in this area are high in foreign language studies, athletic ability, physical energy and physical health. They are low on intellectual interests, scientific competency, technical competency and scholarship. Women present a similar pattern with the exception that intellectual interests are rated highly.
Social Sciences: Both males and females chosing these majors score high in social interests, a non-conforming orientation to college life, and goals of becoming mature and well-adjusted and becoming a good parent. They also tend to be graduates of large high schools.
Business and Administration: Characterized by their clerical and persuasive

interests, business and administration majors possess a collegiate orientation to higher education. They are interested in financial and career success, being well liked, becoming good parents and in achieving executive responsibility.

TITLE: "A Description of College Freshmen: II. Students with Different Vocational Choices"
AUTHORS: Clifford Abe and John L. Holland
PUBLISHED: American College Testing Research Reports, June, 1965, No. 4
PROBLEM: This study attempted to describe college freshmen preparing for different vocations.
POPULATION: The study involved 6,289 male and 6,143 female college freshmen in 31 institutions of whom seven percent (7%) were enrolled in junior colleges, twelve percent (12%) in four-year undergraduate colleges and eighty-one percent (81%) in universities. Eighty-five percent (85%) of the students were attending public colleges and ninety-five percent (95%) attended coeducational colleges. Student enrollment in college by geographic region was as follows: twenty percent (20%) in the Northeast; thirty-one percent (31%) in the South; twenty percent (20%) in the Midwest; twenty-six percent (26%) in the Mountains and Plains states; and three percent (3%) in colleges on the West Coast. Participation rates of freshmen in colleges varied from twenty-two (22%) to ninety-six percent (96%). Variations in participations were believed a function of administrative approaches rather than student interest levels.
METHODOLOGY: In April or May of 1964, freshmen from the various institutions filled out the American College Survey in English classes, chapels and convocations, or in dormitories and their homes. The Survey contains a series of sections planned to elicit a student's achievements, aspirations, attitudes, interests, potentials, values and background.
CONCLUSIONS: The students' vocational choices were grouped into 13 conventional areas, and the authors attempted to differentiate among students choosing these areas. The following examples indicate in part the findings of the authors in three of the vocational areas.
Education: Self ratings by both sexes indicate a perceived importance on athletic ability and physical energy. Of low interest were: being happy and content, inventing or developing a useful product or device, having a meaningful philosophy of life and producing good artistic work.
Social Sciences: Students chosing the social sciences for a vocation are high on social interests and in sensitivity of the needs of others. The males are status seeking, have a wide range of experience and have many intellectual home resources. The females are acquiescent, understand others, have a sense of humor and expect to make a considerable amount of money after graduation.
Business and Administration: Students anticipating this vocation are identified as having conventional and enterprising interests. They want financial security and career success with executive responsibility. They are generally less intellectual, scientific, artisitc, dramatic and original than their peers planning on other vocations.

TITLE: "Changes in the Vocational Plans of College Students: Orderly or Random?"
AUTHORS: John L. Holland and Douglas R. Whitney
PUBLISHED: Iowa City: American College Testing Program, Research & Development Division Research Report #25, April, 1968.
PROBLEM: This study is a continuation of a previous research endeavor that tested the hypothesis that a student's successive occupational choices follow an orderly scheme and can be predicted from initial choices. The authors of this study desired to test the above hypothesis with yet another supposition -- to determine if occupational choices of students are orderly and predictable in

terms of a theory of personality types.
POPULATION: The population for the current study came from a previous American College Survey (Richard, Holland and Lutz, 1967). The total group included two college samples. The first group was composed of 3,147 university and college freshmen enrolled in six institutions. The above sample was tested in September, 1964, and again in May, 1964. The second group consisted of 5,129 university and college freshmen attending 28 schools. The students were asked to indicate their vocational choices in May, 1964, and in May, 1965, as sophomore students.
METHODOLOGY: Occupational choices were analyzed following the method utilized in the previous study -- the Holland psychological classification scheme (Holland, 1966). Choices given by men were placed in six categories: Realistic, Intellectual, Social, Conventional, Enterprising and Artistic. The seven categories of female choice include: Intellectual, Social-Intellectual, Social-Conventional, Social-Enterprising, Social-Artistic, Conventional and Artistic. The subjects were asked to select a career choice from a list of 99 careers. The vocational choices were then placed in the above vocational classes. The study went one step further by categorizing the vocational choices in terms of personality types and subtypes. The Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) (Holland, 1967) was utilized to develop the personality classification. The authors applied the personality classification principles as follows: the average profile formed by the six vocational preference categories, for a sample of students aspiring to a specific vocation (i.e. physicists), defines the sample's major class (the scale of highest score), and the sample's two subclasses (scales with second and third highest scores). For example, the physicists' VPI code would be IRA, since Intellectual is their major class, while Realistic and Artistic are their two subclasses. The subgroups are linked in homogeneity as one proceeds from the first average score to all three average scores being similar to another subgroup's scores. The authors maintain that the procedure utilized for classification should be: "*All* vocations are classified into one of six major classes; each vocation is classified only in a *single* subclass. The principle for classification is always the *same* empirical procedure -- the use of average scores for six interest scales."
CONCLUSIONS: The utilization of the Vocational Preference Inventory code, and the knowledge that students' occupational choices may be classified according to their occupational relatedness, has resulted in the improved ability to predict vocational choices among students.

TITLE: "The Undecided Student -- How Different Is He?"
AUTHOR: L. L. Baird
PUBLISHED: Iowa City: American College Testing Program, Research & Development Division Research Report #22, November, 1967.
PROBLEM: The author wished to determine the existing differences between students who had decided upon a vocation and students who were undecided as to their future plans. The author conducted two studies which can be reviewed separately.
POPULATION, STUDY ONE: The first sample involved 6,289 male and 6,143 female college freshmen enrolled in 31 schools of the liberal arts college,state university and two- year community college types.
METHODOLOGY, STUDY ONE: During the Spring, 1964, the sample was asked to complete a comprehensive assessment study, the American College Survey. Eighty-nine vocational fields along with the choice of "undecided, don't know" were offered to the students. The individuals that responded to the later choice were viewed as undecided. The American College Survey also involved 118 various scales and ratings. Among the more important administered tests were: Vocational Preference Inventory, Extracurricular Achievement Record, Competencies,

Preconscious Activity Scale, Range of Experience, Intellectual Resources in the Home, Indecision Scale, Dogmatism, Student Orientation Survey, Potential Achievement Scales, Self-ratings and Life Goals. The variable means were compiled for the 5,838 male and 5,848 female decided students, and for the 451 male and 295 female undecided students.
POPULATION, STUDY TWO: A total of 59,618 college-bound high school students were involved in the second study. The author selected a ten percent (10%) sample of the total number of students who took the ACT battery of tests between November, 1965, and September, 1966.
METHODOLOGY, STUDY TWO: Along with determining the before-mentioned differences between the decided and undecided student, Baird desired to learn the difference in academic aptitude and educational goals of the two groups. Of the 59,618 students sampled, 45,923 students had decided upon a vocation and 13,695 were undecided. The measures utilized to research the high school sample were: ACT tests (academic aptitude tests), High School Grade Point Average and Goals in Attending College.
CONCLUSIONS: Only minimal differences were found between the vocationally decided and undecided college freshmen on all tests of the American College Survey. Likewise, the vocationally decided and undecided college-bound high school students showed no inter-group differences in regard to academic aptitude and high school grades. However, one difference which was noted between the decided and undecided high school students in reference to their college goals was that, generally, the students that expressed indecision as to their future occupation were entering college to pursue intellectual goals; on the other hand, the vocationally decided high school students were seeking goals of professional training.

TITLE: "The Educational and Vocational Development of College Students: Determinants of Career Choice and Field of Study"
AUTHOR: Alexander W. Astin and Robert J. Panos
PUBLISHED: American Council on Education (Washington, D. C.; 1969), Chapter 4 pp. 85-137.
PROBLEM: In this chapter, the authors sought to examine some of the personal and environmental factors affecting a student's career choice during the undergraduate years, and his eventual undergraduate field.
POPULATION: The sample included approximately 36,000 students who provided both "input" and "output" data, indicating their graduation from college in the year 1965, having begun in the fall of 1961.
METHODOLOGY: The authors systematically selected 246 accredited four-year colleges and universities in the United States as of the fall of 1961. At this time, data was collected for all of the incoming freshmen; a similar set was collected in the summer of 1965 in order to assess any changes over the four-year period. The information collected in both instances included student input data (the student's abilities, achievements, family background and educational and career plans at the time he entered college), student output data (the administrative and environmental characteristics of the student's institution). Only students who had provided both input and output data were considered in the study results. The student's career preference and field of study, both at the time he entered college and four years later at the time of the followup, were assessed through two open-ended items, which were subsequently coded. These questions were: "What occupation do you plan to pursue as a career?" and "What is your current (or most recent) undergraduate major field of study?"
CONCLUSIONS: In addition to stating findings for each specific career choice and corresponding field of study, the authors presented general conclusions

regarding some of the personal and environmental factors that influence the student's career choice and field of study during the undergraduate years:

1. Although the percentage varied greatly from field to field, approximately seventy-five percent (75%) of the students changed their long-term career plans after entering college.
2. These changes were generally to a related field, but with significant effects upon the popularity of specific fields.
3. The best predictors of the student's final major field and career choice were his initial choices at the time of his college matriculation and his sex.
4. Career choices tended to converge on the more popular fields among the general student body, particularly in the cases of engineering, education, law and business.

TITLE: "The Younger Generation:
AUTHOR: Anonymous
PUBLISHED: Research Institute of America, September 25, 1967
PROBLEM: The Research Institute of America (RIA) interviewed college students on a variety of issues with some concern for identifying existing attitudes related to their interest in business careers.
POPULATION: Students were randomly selected on twelve carefully selected campuses, geographically distributed throughout the United States. The total population was 5,000 students.
METHODOLOGY: RIA staff members distributed a 4-page questionnaire to random samples of students in college recreation halls and cafeterias. In addition, intensive taped interviews were used to supplement the questionnaire data collected over a five month period
CONCLUSIONS: Generalizations regarding the students' attitudinal dispositions were included in the summary following analysis of percentile listings of student responses to the questionnaire items. Among these more specific findings were the following (the number in parenthesis indicates the percent of students responding in the given manner):

1) Education was seen as the most significant contributor to better life in America for all (56%).
2) Business and management were seen as offering the most promising opportunities for personal fulfillment (24%).
3) The development of personal skills in a chosen field was seen as the students' top priority in their next few years (51%), with the attempt for each for "finding and understanding" oneself as a significant second (28%).

TITLE: "That 'Generation Gap'"
AUTHOR: Samuel Lubell
PUBLISHED: *The Public Interest*, Vol. 13, Fall, 1968, pp. 52-60
PROBLEM: Samuel Lubell and associates at the Opinion Reporting Workshop of Columbia's Graduate School of Journalism desired to "develop effective techniques for measuring the differences between the generations as a pilot experiment in reporting the process of social change itself."
POPULATION: 350 white and more than 100 Negro college students were interviewed at 28 campuses in 14 states.
METHODOLOGY: The author and his associates completed the interviewing in May, 1968. The interviews, lasting one hour or more, sampled attitudes toward a variety of subjects: upbringing; drug use; premarital sex; religious beliefs; draft; war and patriotism; career choices; and political and economic thinking. Since the major emphasis of the project was reporting change, the researchers designed the interviewing and analysis in such a way as to separate one

influence from another. The interviewers attempted to compare the past and present by asking, for example, how they (the students) differed from their parents. Pattern of change currents were developed by noting the causes affecting change in one student as opposed to a student who has not changed.
CONCLUSIONS: The author believes that the most critical factor contributing to a "generation gap" is that the career objectives of youth are not in accord with the opportunities open to them. Five conclusions from the study are:

1. Only one out of ten showed drastic changed from their parents;
2. A third showed no important differences from their parents, and another third showed only moderate differences;
3. Three-fourths of the students would vote for parents' political party; and
4. There are marked differences in personal living (i.e. drug use and sexual relations) between the generations, but more than half the students would give their children the same upbringing as they received.

TITLE: "Class, Character and Career Determinants of Occupational Choice in College Students"
AUTHORS: Joseph Katz, Ph.D.; Harold A. Korn, Ph.D.; Carole A. Leland, Ph.D.; Max M. Levin, Ph.D. with the assistance of Ronald L. Starr, B.A.
PUBLISHED: Institute for the Study of Human Problems, Stanford University, Stanford, California, 1968
PROBLEM: The purpose of the research was to investigate the nature and determinants of the occupational decision process in college students.
POPULATION: Two student populations were studied by drawing samples from each of the four undergraduate classes at Stanford University and from the two classes at San Jose City College, San Jose, California, a two year junior college.
METHODOLOGY: A 28 page questionnaire was developed aimed at obtaining information about occupational development and the occupational decision. Following extensive pretesting the questionnaire was administered to random samples of each of the four classes at Stanford in the spring of 1966. The sample was selected from the student directory by using a table of random numbers. This was done for each sex separately. A total sample of 686 Stanford students was obtained in this manner. The San Jose sample was selected in a different manner due to difficulties encountered in dealing with a nonresidential college. The questionnaire was administered to a class in introductory psychology during regular class time. A cross-section of San Jose students were enrolled in the course. 448 responses were thus obtained. Interviews were conducted with samples of Stanford and San Jose students to whom the questionnaire had been administered. In addition to the questionnaire, two other instruments were administered to the two samples. These were the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB). In order to investigate changes over time in the occupational decision process, two brief questionnaires were sent to all Stanford graduates of 1965. One was sent out early in 1966 and one in early 1967. 183 responded to the first questionnaire and 208 to the second. A questionnaire similar to that used for Stanford graduates was sent to those San Jose City College students to whom the original questionnaire had been administered in 1966. 448 of these responded.
CONCLUSIONS: Some major ingredients in the occupational decision process of college students:

1) Social class
2) Cultural mores
3) Parental identification and expectations
4) Significant peers, including boyfriends and fiancees
5) The college experience

a) directly through occupational experiences and
b) indirectly through experiences that helped to develop and stabilize the self-concept.

6) Occupational opportunities, i.e., the direction given by the person's perceptions of what occupations are available to him or her.

The investigators also cite the following findings:

1) The surveyed students place a preponderant importance on their future families. Only family life was so heavily endorsed over and above occupation. 85% of the Stanford women and 68% of Stanford men said their future occupation is less important to them than their family life. 57% of the San Jose women and 43% of the men also ranked occupation below family.
2) A tendency for men to become more committed to their occupational choice during college was noted. However, more than half of the Stanford male and female seniors indicate they would prefer to be noncommitted to a career, so as to be free to change. Only 25% of the junior college women and 45% of these men so indicated. Women in particular continue to be indecisive as to occupation after college graduation.

This study contributes much to body of knowledge concerned with occupation and career choice. The chapter entitled "Career and Automony in College Women: by Joseph Katz is of particular interest; as is the review of the literature by Carole A. Leland. The report includes many tables and the appendix has copies of the four questionnaires together with percentage responses.

TITLE: "Educational Goals of Black and White Youth in Segregated and Inter-Racial Schools"
AUTHORS: David Gottlieb and Anne L. Heinsohn
PUBLISHED: Final Report, October 1971, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Office of Education
PROBLEM: The study was undertaken in order to learn more about the educational goals of black and white youth in racially segretated and inter-racial high schools.
POPULATION: 18,612 high school seniors from 55 urban high schools participated in the study. The Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas in the United States was the primary sampling unit. The S.M.S.A. was used because these areas are those in which more and more blacks have come to reside during the last decade. It was also based on the recognition of the trend toward urbanization in American society. Three main populations were studies in this research: 1) black high school seniors from high schools with an all black student population; 2) black and white high school seniors from high schools with black and white student populations; 3) white high school seniors from high schools with an all white student population.
METHODOLOGY: The 18,612 high school seniors filled out a pencil and paper questionnaire in their own schools. These students represented the entire June 1965 graduating class in each of the 55 schools with the exception of respondents who were absent the day the questionnaire was administered. The questionnaire was pre-tested with black and white high school seniors from different high schools.
CONCLUSIONS:

1. Most students, if they could do as they desired, would prefer to attend and complete college. White students in all white schools express a preference for college graduation more frequently than any other group of students. This preference is cited least frequently by white students attending schools that were predominately black. In general males are more likely than females to express a preference for college graduation.

2. The occupational aspirations of the sample are quite high with the majority citing a preference for porfessional or technical careers. In general occupational aspirations tend to be lower for females (as compared with males), but black females express a preference for higher skill occupations than do white females. The data show little in the way of altruism and idealism with respect to important characteristics of work. Most stress the importance of job security and rapid promotion.

3. With respect to the potential referents of students who seek assistance in regard to their educational and occupational plans, females see their parents, teachers-counselors and friends as being willing and able to assist them in career decisions more so than do males, and actually take advantage of the available assistance more than do males. Black students seek more frequent interaction with both black and white teachers (concerning occupational and educational plans) than do white students.

The study report includes tables showing response percentages to specific questionnaire items. A copy of the questionnaire appears in the appendix of the report.

TITLE: "College Freshmen View Their Parents"
AUTHORS: Sandra D. Sandell and Jack E. Rossman
PUBLISHED: The Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 49, No. 10, June, 1971, pp. 821-826
PROBLEM: The authors wished to explore the freshmen students' relationship with their parents and to determine if this relationship had changed during the students' first year in college.
POPULATION: A random sample consisting of 55 freshmen students (29 males and 62 females) entering Macalester College (St. Paul, Minn.) in the fall of 1968 were interviewed for the study.
METHODOLOGY: In October and November, 1968, the authors conducted 59 structured interviews which provided demographic information while focusing on personal information concerning the students' relationship with their parents. 55 of the 59 original sample were re-interviewed in the spring of 1969. The authors were interested in the content and comparison of data from the two separate interviews.
CONCLUSIONS: The following conclusions were drawn from the data:

1) Generally, students described their parents favorably and showed more objectivity and sensitivity to their parents after having been away from home 4 to 5 months.
2) About half of the students claimed that they discussed important problems or interests with their parents, with the major areas of conflict identified as religion, politics, and sex.
3) Mothers were perceived as more sympathetic and were more often confided in than fathers who were described as "good providers, interested in children, but not demonstrative."
4) 80% of the students claimed their beliefs, values, goals, and life styles were different from their parents. They saw themselves as more liberal, less materialistic and as searching to establish their own value systems based on a more casual way of living.

TITLE: "A Special Report on Youth"
AUTHOR: Jeremy Main
PUBLISHED: Fortune, Vol. 79, No. 7, June, 1969, pp. 73-74
PROBLEM: This research sought to provide information from three sample subgroups for the purpose of comparing respective attitudes and values.
POPULATION: The sample consisted of 723 college students and 617 non-students between the ages of 17 and 23, and about half of the college students' parents.

METHODOLOGY: Daniel Yankelovich, Inc., supplemented the survey of youth attitudes which it had conducted for Fortune (January, 1969) with the interviewing reported in this article. In these interviews, subjects were asked questions to which they could respond on a Likert-type scale, or from a multiple choice offering.

CONCLUSIONS: Although Main reports findings over a wide spectrum of areas, including religion, patriotism, the parental gap, business, and others, of greatest concern in this annotated bibliography is his abbreviated review entitled "Youth Looks at the Working World." Data from the college and non-college subjects were divided on the basis of the subject's classification into one of five political categories: revoluntionary, radical dissidents, reformers, moderates, and conservatives. This attitudinal data covered these seven issues as they related to work: competition, hard work, conformity, power and authority, money, business reform and trade unions. The percentile degree of agreement of the subjects to basic propositions regarding these issues was reported with results showing dramatic differences between college and non-college groups.

TITLE: "Profile of a Nonconformist Youth Culture: A Study of the Berkeley Non-Students"

AUTHOR: William A. Watts and David Whittaker

PUBLISHED: Sociology of Education, Vol. 41, No. 2, Spring, 1968, pp. 178-200

PROBLEM: The authors desired to compare University of California, Berkeley, students to non-students in the vicinity on the following socio-psychological dimensions: socioeconomic background; family relationships; and social-political attitudes.

POPULATION: The sample included 151 non-students living in close proximity to the Berkeley campus. The authors state that the sample is not representative of the total non-student population, but they believe that a broad range of the population has been realized due to the various recruiting techniques used. Fifty-six university students were selected on a random basis from the student directory. Eighteen of the 56 refused to participate, which yielded a response rate of 77%.

METHODOLOGY: The researchers collected the data on the Berkeley non-students in August, 1965; material on the Berkeley students was collected in September, 1965. Both groups were tested under similar conditions, such as: rooms utilized; small groups of subjects tested at a given time; and identical testing materials. The authors designed a questionnaire in order to test respondents' backgrounds, family relationships, and social and political attitudes. Watts and Whittaker also utilized the following scales: Srole's Scale of Anomie; the Personal Integration Scale of the Omnibus Personality Inventory; and the Thorndike Vocabulary Test. Srole's Scale includes five true-false items that are used to measure "self-to-other" attachments. The Personal Integration Scale involves 54 true-false items measuring characteristics of anxious, disturbed, and socially-alienated persons. The Thorndike Test measured verbal intelligence.

CONCLUSIONS: The non-students were found to differ from their student counterparts in a number of ways. The non-students were society and family alienated, and less interested in a career. The non-students were skeptical concerning political action for social change, yet they attend political rallies on a more frequent basis than the students. Both groups were comparable in intellectual ability, but the non-students were dissatisfied with university education. Dropping out of school, for many of the non-students, represents only a temporary break in their schooling.

TITLE: "Background of Political Activists"

AUTHORS: David L. Westby and Richard G. Braungart

PUBLISHED: Robert O'Brien, Clarence Schrag, Walter Martin, Readings in General Sociology, 4th Edition, Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1969, pp. 270-272
PROBLEM: The authors sought to show that the parental political party affiliation and socioeconomic status of politically active students affect their association with the "right" or "left."
POPULATION: Those questioned were 29 students of SENSE (Students for Peace), representing the "left"; 19 students of YAF (Young Americans for Freedom), representing the "right"; and 105 students in an introductory sociology class at a large public university in the eastern U. S.
METHODOLOGY: In the spring of 1965, a questionnaire was administered en masse to each of the above groups. The first consisted of items related to socioeconomic status and similar background variables with the second part composed of a 22-item Likert-type scale measuring their attitudes toward the war in Viet Nam.
CONCLUSIONS: Keeping in mind the small sample size, the authors presented the following relationships: the families of SENSE members are predominately upper class Democrats, whereas YAF members' families are mainly lower class Republicans. These student activists seem to represent ideological positions that are generally consistent with the political orientation of their families. The authors suggest that researchers of the student movement might profit from considering more closely the social class and political backgrounds of their subjects.

TITLE: "Commitment and Conformity in the American College"
AUTHORS: James W. Trent and Judith L. Craise
PUBLISHED: Journal of Social Issues, Vol. 23, No. 3, 1967, pp. 34-51
PROBLEM: This study was designed to investigate the degree to which the intense political activism on some campuses is pervasive and representative of college students in the United States.
POPULATION: In 1959, nearly 10,000 high school graduates from 16 communities across California, the Midwest and Pennsylvania were given the research questionnaire. Of these students, approximately 2,000 went on to complete college and the 1,385 of these who responded to the follow-up questionnaire constitute the study population.
METHODOLOGY: The research instrument was a questionnaire specifically designed for the study, but which also, incorporated scales from the Omnibus Personality Inventory. Administered on a pre and post-college basis, it inquired into the students' vocational, social and personal values.
CONCLUSIONS: Generally stated, the authors argue that the intensive student activism observed at the time of the study was not pervasive. Furthermore, it was observed that the majority of students, particularly those in the applied fields such as business, engineering and education, displayed a largely apathetic and practical orientation.

TITLE: "Woman's Changing Occupational Role -- A Research Paper"
AUTHORS: Sarane S. Boocock, Marilyn E. Johnson, Matilda White Riley
PUBLISHED: American Behavioral Scientist, Vol. 6, May, 1963, pp. 33-37
PROBLEM: The authors sought to investigate the possibility that the trend toward more women in the working force is a reflection of a shift in the attitudes of women to their traditional occupational role.
POPULATION: In February and March, 1961, junior and senior girls in selected higher ability classes in seven schools in New Jersey, were asked to complete a questionnaire. The sample was concentrated among adolescent girls with potential for higher education.
METHODOLOGY: The questions were designed to fit the thinking of the adolescent on the basis of preliminary interviewing. The questionnaire was concerned with factors such as the concept of a working mother, reasons for women working and

the effect of education on the attitudes of working women.
CONCLUSIONS: In analyzing the data collected, the authors' trend analysis led to the major conclusion that more women are working now for other than economic reasons, and that this is likely to continue as the on coming generation is being socialized to accept the working woman as the norm.

TITLE: "Career or Marriage?: A Longitudinal Study of Able Young Women"
AUTHOR: Donivan J. Watley
PUBLISHED: National Merit Scholarship Corporation, Research Report, Vol. 5, No. 7, 1969
PROBLEM: This study was conducted to furnish updated evidence concerning the career plans of highly intelligent young women.
POPULATION: Respondents to the study questions included 883 semifinalists of The National Merit Scholarship Qualifying Test (NMSQT) in the years 1956-1960.
METHODOLOGY: During the summer of 1965, the population was contacted by mail and asked to respond to the questionnaire guaging career plans. The figure 883 represents the number of usable responses from the original number of 1,079.
CONCLUSIONS: Eighty-five percent (85%) of the respondents reported that they planned a non-domestic career. Highly correlated with this position, however, was the present marital status of the NMSQT semifinalist. This fact was apparently not strongly affected by the parental status of the respondent. A common concern of the career oriented women was the interest in both more education and thereafter an immediate career. The author noted that the study's intelligent young women show little intention to follow their traditional counterparts who seldom pursued professional careers.

TITLE: "Higher Education, Religion and Women's Family Size Orientation"
AUTHORS: Charles F. Westoff and Raymond H. Potvin
PUBLISHED: American Sociological Review, Vol. 31, August, 1966, pp. 489-496
PROBLEM: The authors wished to test the effects of various kinds of higher education on the family-size preference of women of different religions.
POPULATION: The sample included 15,000 first-year and four-year women enrolled in 45 schools representative of four-year universitites, liberal arts colleges and teacher's colleges, with female enrollments of at least 300 students. The probability sample included 24 Catholic and 21 non-Catholic institutions.
METHODOLOGY: The researchers tested the sample by means of a questionnaire. The form was administered during a classroom setting in some schools. In many of the larger institutions, the questionnaire was completed by mail. The 15,000 respondents represent a seventy-two percent (72%) response rate, In order to complete the analysis of the number of children desired by women in each of the 45 schools, the authors conducted three basic comparisons: among the differing religious categories; between freshmen and seniors for each religious category in each type of school; and between freshmen of the same religious preference in the different kinds of schools.
CONCLUSIONS: The authors conclude that personal selectivity of a certain number of children is more important than college experience in explaining the various family-size preferences among college women. An exception may be found in women enrolled in non-sectarian colleges who graduated from Catholic high schools; these students indicated a decline in family-size preference that may not be associated with personal selectivity.

TITLE: College Women and Fertility Values
AUTHORS: Charles Westoff and Raymond Potvin
PUBLISHED: College Women and Fertility Values, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey: 1967 Chapters 3, 4, 6, 8

PROBLEM: The authors wished to provide an answer to the question of whether education in American Catholic universities tends to strengthen attitudes favoring high fertility or whether women with high fertility orientations seek higher education in Catholic schools.

POPULATION: The population sampled consisted of freshmen and senior women in 45 universities. Of these, 15 were nonsectarian, coeducational; 2 nonsectarian, women only; 3 Protestant, coeducational; 8 Catholic coeducational; and 16 Catholic, women only. Each school had at least 300 full time undergraduate women; twenty percent (20%) of the schools were under Roman Catholic control. After eliminating inelligible returns, the study dealt with about 15,000 questionnaires.

CONCLUSIONS: The entire book records the conclusions of this study, but four chapters are especially relevant to our research.

Chapter 3: Higher Education and Family Size Preference. From the sample, a total of 14 subgroups were classified on the basis of religion; type of college; and, among Catholics, type of secondary and elementary schools. The preference order for small families, from most desired to least desired, is: women with no religious preference, Jewish and Protestant women in nonsectarian institutions and Protestants in Protestant and Catholic schools. Catholic women, with a Catholic education, desire the largest families. Generally, seniors desire fewer children than freshmen. There is some evidence that a reduction in the number of children desired can be associated with higher education, especially among Catholics.

Chapter 4: Higher Education and Family Planning Intentions. Not only present family size, but also readiness and ability to practice some form of family limitation determines the number of children a woman will have. With higher education, there was a slight increase in the proportion of Jewish, Mormon and Protestant women and women with no religious preference intending to plan their families. Catholic women, too, show an increased desire to space their children, but to a much lesser degree.

Chapter 6: Higher Education and Some Beliefs About Marriage, Family and Career. Ninety-six percent (96%) of the Jews, eighty-six percent (86%) of the Protestants, eighty-four percent (84%) of the Mormons and sixty-six percent (66%) of the Catholic women sampled disagreed with the notion that a married couple are obligated to have a large family. Ninety-nine percent (99%) plan to work after college, but differences appear in the percentage who intend to work after marriage. The data suggest that the longer the exposure to education in religion-affiliated schools, the greater the commitment to family over career.

Chapter 8: Social and Personal Characteristics and Fertility Values. The researchers found a positive correlation between a woman's family size preferences and the size of the families from which her parents came. Other influencing factors are number of siblings, nationality backgrounds and religiousness. Socioeconomic status, as determined by father's occupation and education of both parents, did not appear to be related to the family planning intentions or family size preference of the women sampled.

TITLE: "Youth Looks at Politics, College Education, Jobs and Family"
AUTHORS: R. D. Franklin and H. H. Remmers
PUBLISHED: The Purdue Opinion Panel, Division of Educational Reference, Purdue University, Vol. 19, No. 4, July, 1960

PROBLEM: The researchers desired to determine the attitudes of high school students toward national affairs, college admissions, working women, teenage jobs and allowances, and the decision-making process concerning their life.

POPULATION: Polls of the Purdue Opinion Panel were distributed by high school personnel all over the nation to 8,000 high school students. From the total sample, the researchers selected a sample of 2,000 pupils who were analyzed as being representative of the nation's high school students. Grade, sex, residence and geographical region were utilized as stratifical characteristics. All other factors were completely randomized from the total sample.

METHODOLOGY: During May, 1960, the high school students completed the anonymous poll on ballot cards. The first section of the poll questioned the subjects on such factors as: present school grade, individual's sex, home environment, and mother's education. Socioeconomic status was determined through utilization of the "house-home" scale. The second portion of the questionnaire, consisting of 49 multiple choice questions, attempted to ascertain the attitudes of the students on the above five topics.

CONCLUSIONS: A number of general conclusions may be drawn from the questions dealing with national affairs. The subjects favored Nixon over any of the Democratic candidates for president in 1960. Forty-eight percent (48%) of the students indicated that the voting age should not be lowered to 18. Also, seventy-five percent (75%) of the sample believed that military training should be given to men. An overwhelming percentage of students agreed that colleges should expand, the federal government should build more colleges, and that public junior colleges should be built so that more high school students might attend college. Fifty-seven percent (57%) of the sample felt that it is desirable for married women to work only if they do not have small children. Forty-six percent (46%) receive an allowance in varying amounts; chores are performed by more than half of those who receive an allowance. Most decision situations, such as money spent, summer plans, future careers, and dating patterns, evoked the response of "I decide," in seventy percent (70%) to eighty percent (80%) of the cases. Over half of the students indicated that their parents decide arrival home time from social activities.

TITLE: "Educational and Vocational Goals of Rural Youth in North Carolina"
AUTHORS: Irwin V. Sperry and Vira R. Kivett
PUBLISHED: Greensboro: North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station, Technical Bulletin #163, 1964.

PROBLEM: The authors wished to sample the attitudes of rural students toward education, their own educational and occupational plans, and their own vocational preferences. The students' parents were questioned on the above attitudes, and they were asked to respond as they thought their children would. Therefore, the similarities and differences between the students' and their parents' attitudes could be delineated.

POPULAITON: The study's population, 281 students living at home with both parents, was determined by standards for the selection of the youth rather than their parents. The criteria involved a random sample chosen from: 1) rural areas; and 2) ninth and tenth grade students enrolled in schools that (a) had Future Homemakers of America chapters, and (b) were outside the limits of cities with populations of 50,000 or more.

METHODOLOGY: The educational attitudes of the students were determined through the utilization of the Hieronymous' scale, Attitudes Toward Education. The scale rates the subject's attitudes toward the value of education. Educational and occupational plans were ascertained by means of a questionnaire developed by the Technical Committee of Regional Project S-48. Students checked items on the form which best described their future plans: length of schooling, college or non-college plans, degree of parental urging, degree of financial help--schooling, desired occupation, expected occupation, parents' attitudes toward plans, parents' opinion of plans and degree of financial help--occupation. The vocational preferences of the students were measured by means of the Kuder Preference Record. Ten areas of preference that are determined include: outdoor, mechanical, computational, scientific, persuasive, artistic, literary, musical, social service and clerical. The parents of the sample were visited by a qualified field worker

from the community who administered, individually to each parent, a modified version of the above questionnaire. The parents completed the Hieronymous' scale and the Kuder Preference Record as they thought their children would.
CONCLUSIONS: The subjects' vocational preferences were found to be similar to other age groups in different regions. The authors believe that occupational interests are dependent on the student's attitudes and opinions rather than geographic location. The youth's educational and vocational plans appeared to be associated with their level of living: i.e., family life styles and socioeconomic level. Parental expectations for the students also were found to be related to the youth's future goals. No other variables studied showed a significant relationship to the above goals.

TITLE: "Youth's Attitudes Toward Industrial Relations"
AUTHORS: R. D. Franklin, S. G. Graziano, and H. H. Remmers
PUBLISHED: The Purdue Opinion Panel, Division of Educational Reference, Purdue University, Vol. 19, No. 3, June, 1960.
PROBLEM: The researchers desired to measure the attitudes of high school students in such areas as union, business, and government control of industrial relations, and the national employment picture the students will desire in the future. The study was also concerned with determining what values the high school student will possess as he enters the future labor market.
POPULATION: Polls of the Purdue Opinion Panel were distributed by high school personnal all over the nation to 8,000 high school students. From the total sample, the researchers selected a sample of 2,000 pupils who were analyzed as being representative of the nation's high school students. Grade, sex, residence and geographical region were utilized as stratification characteristics. All other factors were completely randomized from the total sample.
METHODOLOGY: During April, 1960, the high school students completed the anonymous poll on ballot cards. The first section of the poll questioned the subjects on such factors as: present school grade, individual's sex, home environment, and mother's education. Socioeconomic status was determined through utilization of the "house-home" scale. The remaining 73 questions on the poll were of the multiple choice type. The subjects were asked to select answers to questions concerning: occupational aspirations and expectations, knowledge of industrial relations, business and union leaders, government's role in industrial relations, labor and management practices, and the 1960 presidential election.
CONCLUSIONS: A large number of the subjects desire to be "professional specialists" as fifty-two percent (52%) expect such a job and fifty-eight percent (58%) would like to aspire to a professional job. The students conveyed a general lack of knowledge concerning industrial relations. The conclusion, drawn by the researchers, was that the teenager is "vulnerable to emotional appeals and social pressure (that) inculcate and change his attitudes in this area." Generally, the students responded in a more favorable light to statements about business leaders than to those on union leaders. When asked questions concerning distribution of power, the students indicated that business had the right amount of power, the government should be given more power, and the unions should have less power. With regard to presidential candidate choice for the 1960 election, the subjects selected Nixon over any Democratic candidate. Finally, the researchers caution that "students in different grades respond differently to many of the items about industrial relations. This indicates that their attitudes about industrial relations are being formed and changed and stresses their need for more factual knowledge...so that this attitude formation might have a rational basis."

TITLE: "Aspirations and Expectations: A Reexamination of the Basis For Social Class Differences in the Occupational Orientations of Male High School Students."

AUTHORS: Francis G. Caro and C. Terence Pihlblad
PUBLISHED: Sociology and Social Research, Vol. 49, No. 1, July, 1965, pp. 465-475
PROBLEM: The goal of this study was to examine possible sources of social class differences in the occupational orientations of male high school youth.
POPULATION: "Usable" structured questionnaires were obtained from 678 male high school students in Jackson County, Missouri. The criteria for "usability" were that the student's father's background characteristics of education and occupation fit the author's social class categorizations.
METHODOLOGY: All male high school students in the designated county were given the structured questionnaire and then the selection criteria were applied. The three social class levels were defined as follows:
Upper Class - Students whose fathers were in high prestige occupations and had at least completed high school.
Middle Class - Students whose fathers had medium prestige occupations and who had completed at least grade school, but no more than two years of college.
Lower Class - Students whose fathers had low prestige jobs and who had not completed high school.
CONCLUSIONS: The authors found that students from the upper social class aspired to higher level occupations than those from lower social classes. In addition however, the authors found a relationship between a student's social class background and the size of the disparity between his occupational aspirations and expectations. The observed aspiration-expectation disparity for lower class boys was .69 compared to .30 for middle class and .21 for upper class males. Finally, academic ability was seen as an important factor by the students in that it was seen as affecting their access to high prestige occupations.

TITLE: "Some Family Determinants of Ambition"
AUTHOR: Ralph H. Turner
PUBLISHED: Sociology and Social Research, Vol. 46, 1962, pp. 397-411
PROBLEM: The author sought to investigate the relationship between family determinants and the ambitions of high school seniors with respect to education and material expectations.
POPULATION: The respondents in this study were 1,057 male and 1,118 female native white "Anglo" seniors from socioeconomically representative Los Angeles metropolitan area high schools.
METHODOLOGY: The research instrument was a questionnaire largely developed by the researcher and administered by him and associates in required high school classes. A composite index of ambition level was computed by assigning arbitrary weights to the individual ambition items. The second index used in the data analysis was one which sought to measure the extent to which displayed ambition was materialistically or educationally oriented.
CONCLUSIONS: Among the author's major findings were the following:

1. A student's educationally directed ambition was likely to be high when his family breadwinner's education was high relative to his occupation, and when the education of the mother exceeded that of the father.
2. Consistent, but not statistically significant, support was found for the hypothesis that the complete family with the father as breadwinner would produce the highest ambition. This relationship received its support in higer socioeconomic areas.
3. When family size was held constant, sibling positon and sex of siblings appeared to have no relationship to the student's ambition level.

TITLE: "Class and Family Influences on Student Aspirations"
AUTHOR: William S. Bennett, Jr. and Noel P. Gist
PUBLISHED: Social Forces, Vol. 43, December, 1964, pp. 167-173

PROBLEM: The authors wish to examine youth in reference to: attitudes toward occupation and education with regard to social class; future aspirations as opposed to actual occupational plans; and parental influence toward occupation and education among the different social classes.

POPULATION: The tested sample included 202 Negro males, 210 Negro females, 250 white males, and 211 white females enrolled in grades nine and twelve of four large Kansas City, Missouri high schools. The sample included most of the students in the two grades and is fairly representative of Kansas City high school students. Neither the wealthiest nor the most impoverished schools were represented.

METHODOLOGY: In one fifty minute class period, during the 1960-61 school year, the researchers distributed a questionnaire to the students. In the first part of the questionnaire, the researchers were attempting to determine a set of 21 independent variables; only two were used in this study (race and father's occupation). The second part of the questionnaire generally utilized open-ended questions and sought to determine the student's educational aspirations, occupational aspirations as opposed to actual plans, plus degree and type of influence received from the father, the mother, and any other non-family member. The North-Hatt Occupational Prestige Scale was employed to determine occupational classification.

CONCLUSIONS: The findings indicate that career aspirations and actual career plans showed little variation among the social classes; however, occupational plans did vary significantly. Regardless of race, the maternal influence appeared more forceful and convincing at the lower social class level.

TITLE: "Anomia, Aspirations, and Status"

AUTHOR: Lewis Rhodes

PUBLISHED: Social Forces, Vol. 42, May, 1964, pp. 434-440

PROBLEM: The author desires to ascertain to what extent anomia varies in relation to aspiration (life goals) and socioeconomic status.

POPULATION: Those sampled included 960 white male and female high school seniors enrolled in a number of Tennessee high schools; 75% of the seniors enrolled in three public schools and one parochial school in a small Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area and 80% of the seniors enrolled in one town public school and three county public schools were represented in the research.

METHODOLOGY: The author utilized a questionnaire which was administered en masse throughout each school during a classroom situation. Rhodes' questionnaire incorporated the S-role Anomie Scale, a number of attitudinal measurements, and background questions. The chi-square test was used to determine the zero-order relationships between all variables. The researchers placed the subjects into homogeneous subgroups (sex, occupational aspirations, rural-urban school, and occupational level of subject's family) and performed multivariate analysis in order to develop the relationship between anomia and occupational aspiration.

CONCLUSIONS: Findings indicate that levels of anomia are more dependent on occupational aspirations than on actual socioeconomic status. The author concludes that "anomia is maximized where distance between aspirations and life chances for success is maximized -- in both directions (i.e., anomia is also high where status, hence life chance for success, is high and aspiration is low)."

TITLE: "Accuracy of Occupational Stereotypes of Grade-Twelve Boys"

AUTHOR: Raymond Banducci

PUBLISHED: Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 17, No. 6, November, 1970, pp. 534-539

PROBLEM: The author wished to discover if individuals who differ in socioeconomic level, academic development, crystallization of plans, vocational interests, and range of personal experiences also differ in their ability to determine accurate stereotypes of occupations.

POPULATION: Those sampled were a group of 679 twelfth-grade boys enrolled in three public high schools in Cedar Rapids, Iowa. The students represented a wide range of socioeconomic levels.

METHODOLOGY: The author administered the following tests during the students' physical education classes: The Worker Traits Inventory and a Personal Data Sheet (developed by the investigator); the Vocational Preference Inventory (Holland, 1965); and the Range of Experience Inventory (Abe, Holland, Lutz, and Richards, 1965). Ratings of academic development were obtained through the twelfth-grade composite standard scores of the Iowa Tests of Educational Development. The authors used the Hieronymus Scale Values (Hieronymus, 1948) and the North and Hatt National Opinion Research Center Occupational Prestige Scale (Bendix and Lipset, 1966) to rate the socioeconomic status of the students' fathers. Thus the above five categories were examined by these various tests. The Workers Traits Inventory asked the students to rate 12 occupations to determine the worker trait requirements needed for successful job performance. Student ratings were compared with job qualification ratings in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, and discrepancy (accuracy) scores were realized.

CONCLUSIONS: Among the author's findings were that students with high academic development perceived high level jobs more accurately; low level jobs were perceived more accurately by low academic development and low socioeconomic status students. Accurate stereotypes of occupations were also perceived by students with definite vocational plans and those of the dominant vocational interest category on Holland's Vocational Preference Inventory.

TITLE: "Vocational Plans and Preferences of Adolescents"

AUTHORS: A. C. Erlick and A. R. Starry

PUBLISHED: Report of Poll No. 94 of the Purdue Opinion Panel, May, 1972

PROBLEM: High schools participating in the Purdue Opinion have expressed a need for a frame of reference for vocational decision-making by their students. The survey reported here sought to provide an instrument in which high school students could describe themselves with respect to what they know and so consider vocational options. Study objectives are: 1) to determine educational and occupational aspirations of high school students and 2) to develop a relationship between school experience and expectations of varying work and educational contexts. Data used in comparisons includes; sex, school grade, level of parents' education, region or county.

POPULATION: More than 16,000 students in grades 10, 11 and 12 attending public and private high schools in the United States responded to the poll. A sample of 2,000 was drawn and stratified to match the 1970 census distribution according to age, grade, residence (rural-urban) and geographical regions.

METHODOLOGY: Poll No. 94 was conducted in December, 1971. The respondents recorded their replies to the poll questions on special ballot cards. The poll was conducted in the respondents own school. The ballot cards were then processed at Purdue University.

CONCLUSIONS:

1. High school students who exhibit the most concern about vocational decision-making are those who have higher than average grades, effective work habits, ability in science and human relationships - perhaps because they have a larger pool of alternatives from which to choose.
2. Those students who display uncertainty about their future plans along with little concern about vocational choices are those with average or lower grades; apparently because they have few alternatives.
3. High school students, given the opportunity, are able to assess their

present status and relate this to educational needs in selecting job families.
4. High school students do not like to relate their school work liabilities to out of school work experiences.

The report includes references and tables showing poll questions and percentage responses.

TITLE: "High School Students; Preferences for Careers and Organizational Environments"
AUTHORS: T. R. Leidy, A. R. Starry, D. N. Braunstein and G. H. Haines
PUBLISHED: Report of Poll No. 82 (first part) of the Purdue Opinion Panel, January, 1968.
PROBLEM: Poll 82 of the Purdue Public Opinion Panel is a study of the attitudes of high school students toward various careers and organizational environments. The investigators sought data to determine if high school students are becoming disenchanted with careers in business and industry.
POPULATION: Close to 8,000 high school pupils from all sections of the United States responded to this poll. A sample of 2,000 pupils was drawn, so that data analysis could be done on a group as nearly representative of the nation's high school students as possible. The sample was stratified according to grade, sex, residence and geographical region. It was then randomized from the total returns with respect to all other characteristics.
METHODOLOGY: The study utilized two forms of a questionnaire. Approximately 8,000 students completed each of the two instruments. The questionnaires were administered in the students' own school. Responses were recorded on special ballot cards which were then processed at Purdue University.
CONCLUSIONS:

1. High school students are most likley to choose security, and the opportunity to accomplish something worthwhile as desirable job characteristics. Salary and opportunity for advancement are ranked second and third.
2. High school students prefer business careers as often as they do other professions in comparison with occupations and organizations that were used in the questionnaire.
3. Careers in business are identified closely with opportunities for advancement and high salaries when paired with other organizations and professions.

The appendix to the report contains both forms of the questionnaire together with percentage responses.

TITLE: "Youth's Vocational Plans and Attitudes Toward School"
AUTHORS: T. R. Leidy, A. R. Starry, H. H. Remmers, R. Karasick and B. Smart
PUBLISHED: Report of Poll 78 (first part) of the Purdue Opinion Panel, November, 1966
PROBLEM: The study was concerned with the vocational plans of high school students' and the students' attitudes toward school.
POPULATION: Close to 17,000 high school pupils from all parts of the United States replied to this poll. 2,000 pupils were drawn as a sample, such that the analysis of the results could be made on a group as nearly representative of the nation's high school pupils as possible. The sample was then stratified according to grade, sex, residence and geographical region.
METHODOLOGY: Poll No. 78 was conducted in November, 1966. The respondents recorded their replies to the poll questions on special ballot cards. The poll was conducted in the respondents' own school. The ballot cards were then processed at Purdue University.
CONCLUSIONS:

1. The number of students planning to attend college has been increasing steadily since 1946, while the number planning to work immediately following high school has decreased at about the same rate.
2. High school students in general appear satisfied with their school curricula. They also express the opinion that the schools prepare both the student pursuing the academic program and the student in the business-vocational curricula equally well.
3. High school students indicated their schools have provided them with a degree of vocational assistance and counseling. Most students however, do not know as much about jobs as they would like to know, and indicate the schools should supply more with respect to occupational information through courses, work experience or counseling.
4. The occupational plans and expected salaries of the polled students are closely related to their personal and family background, their school performance and post-high school plans. Students planning on professional managerical careers anticipated the highest income.

The report includes an appendix containing the poll questions and percentage responses.

TITLE: "Parental Influence, Anticipatory Socialization, and Social Mobility"
AUTHOR: Richard L. Simpson
PUBLISHED: American Sociological Review, Vol. 27, August, 1962, pp. 517-522
PROBLEM: The author wished to test the effects that peer group and parental influences have on the career aspirations of high school boys.
POPULATION: Questionnaires were administered to 917 boys enrolled in two southern, white high schools. One school was located in a city of 25,000 population and provided 333 subjects; the other school provided 584 respondents from a city of 60,000 population. The population was reduced from 917 to 743 due to non-responses and unclassifiable responses.
METHODOLOGY: In 1960, the author distributed a questionnaire to 917 high school boys during their home room period. Ninety percent (90%) of all the boys in the two schools completed the form during the given period. Open-ended questions provided data on parental occupation, occupational aspiration of self, parental influence, and peer group influence. The boys were categorized according to parental occupation and occupational aspiration of self as follows: ambitious middle-class; unambitious middle-class; mobile working-class; and non-mobile working class. Questions pertaining to amount of parental advice on occupational choice were tabulated according to the four categories. Likewise, questions asking the kind of parental occupation of the three best friends of the boys were categorized into the above four types.
CONCLUSIONS: The author concludes that when parental and peer group influences are examined simultaneously, each variable effects occupational aspirations when the other is held constant. Among high aspiring boys, whether middle or working class, parental influence was more prevalent than among low-aspirers. Mobile working-class boys were found to have more middle-class friends and attend more extracurricular clubs than non-mobile working-class and unambitious middle-class boys.

TITLE: "Social Origins, Occupational Goals, and Southern Youth"
AUTHORS: J. Steven Picow and Arthur G. Cosby
PUBLISHED: Youth & Society, Vol. 2, No. 3, March, 1971, pp. 307-322
PROBLEM: The primary objective of this study was an analysis of the effects of various external social conditions on the occupational aspirations of southern youth.
POPULATION: Group-administered interviews, in the form of standarized

questionnaires, were obtained in 1966-1967, from high school sophomore students in Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi and South Carolina. Socioeconomic characteristics of counties in these states served as a basis for the selection of the 8,802 respondents whose data were used in the sample.
METHODOLOGY: Through items on the questionnaire, responses were elicited on five crucial variables: occupational aspirations, fathers' occupations, race, residence and family structure. Bivariate relationships, multivariate analysis and statistical tests of significance were the principle methods of data analysis.
CONCLUSIONS: The authors' findings included the following"

1. Higher level occupational goals of students were more likely to occur when the fathers had at least a high school diploma and/or held high level jobs.
2. Urban students showed higher occupational aspirations than their small-town, rural-nonfarm and rural-farm counterparts.
3. Only a slight tendency was shown overall for white students to have higher-level job goals than black respondents.
4. Occupational goal formation did not appear to be influenced negatively by nonintact family systems.

TITLE: "Peers: Three Distinct Groups"
AUTHOR: Hershel D. Thornburg
PUBLISHED: Adolescence, Vol. 6, No. 21, 1971, pp. 59-76.
PROBLEM: The author identifies three youth groups: high school, non-college and college youth. These distinct groups have varying attitudes and value references.
POPULATION: In this article, the author reproduced parts of a survey undertaken by C.B.S. News in April, 1969. The sample consisted of 2,881 non-college youth, 723 college youth, 310 non-college youth parents and 362 college youth parents.
METHODOLOGY: The statements and responses reproduced in this article focused on traditional value statements, restraints imposed by society and attitudes toward society's institutions. The percentages agreeing with a given statement are reported in the article.
CONCLUSIONS: Through his interpretation of the data gathered by this survey, Thornburg concludes that non-college youth are more conservative, more prone to traditional values, more religious, more work-oriented, more money-oriented, less activism-oriented and more accepting of the draft and the war in Viet Nam than college youth. Also stated in the article are R. W. Carry's five emerging trends in attitude and thought about rules, education and youth and other studies concerning youth.

TITLE: "Youth's Attitude Toward School, Teen-Age Employment Problems and Women Working
AUTHORS: H. H. Remmers, T. R. Leidy, J. Weisbrodt and A. R. Starry
PUBLISHED: Report of Poll No. 73 of the Purdue Opinion Panel, January, 1965
PROBLEM: The Purdue Opinion Panel wished to sample the attitudes of youth concerning: the effectiveness of high school in preparing them to face life problems; women working; and the dilemma of teen-age employment.
POPULATION: The data gathered from this study is based on responses of 2,000 questionnaires drawn from a total return of 14,000 public high school students. The sample was proportionately representative of the national population of several groupings. These include: sex; grade in school; region of the country; and urban or rural residence.
METHODOLOGY: The multiple-choice questionnaire was completed anonymously by the sample. Questions covered topics such as: feelings toward school and the courses offered; plans following high school graduation; knowledge of jobs within

the community; and the role of a women in the work world.
CONCLUSIONS: The researchers concluded from the data that students want to know more about planning their education and choosing a job. Seventy-two percent (72%) of the sample like school most of the time, and girls like school more than boys do. The majority of those stating that they did like school have plans for some kind of post high school training. Seventy-six percent (76%) of the sample expressed the opinion that their high school courses are helping them to prepare for future living. Responding to the scarcity of available jobs, students feel that government or the community should be responsible for unemployed teen-agers. Suggestions to reduce unemployment included: a domestic job corps; raising the permitted age to leave school from 16 to 18; and the military draft. Forty-six percent (46%) of the boys sampled tended to agree that a married woman should not have a job outside of the home; while sixty percent (60%) of the girls sampled tended to disagree with this statement.

Center for Youth Studies and Social Policy
College of Human Development
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania 16802
March 15, 1972

Dear Student:

You are one of 2,000 graduating seniors from five different schools in Pennsylvania who has been chosen to participate in this study.

The study is being conducted by social scientists at Pennsylvania State University. The research is designed to yield important information on attitudes toward work, career intentions, future plans, and how these are related to your college experiences.

The questionnaire requires about 45 minutes to fill out. Each respondent who completes the questionnaire will receive $5.00. Please answer the questions as frankly and accurately as you can. This is not a test. Your answers will be absolutely confidential, and no individual student's answers will be revealed in the report which will be based on statistical tabulations.

On the final page of the questionnaire we ask your name and current address. This information is needed in order to send you your $5.00 payment for participating in the study. We also ask for your most likely address one year from now and the name and address of someone who will know where you are or could forward a letter to you. This information is needed in order to send you a summary copy of the study results. In addition, there is a strong possibility of a follow-up study; hence, it would be important for us to have some means of reaching you.

Almost all of the questions can be answered by drawing a circle around one or more numbers in the right hand margins of the qeustionnaire. Thus:

I am now---(Circle one.)
A student in high school..1
A student in college.....[✓ 2]
A student in graduate
or professional school..3

When questions are to be answered in a format different from that shown above, specific instructions will be provided.

Note: After each question there are instructions in parentheses. Follow these instructions closely as they are very important for data processing.

A. If it says "(Circle one.)," draw a circle around only the one number which best describes your answer, even though one or more other alternatives might be relevant.

B. If it says "(Circle one in each column.)" or "(Circle one in each row.)," please look to see that you have circled one and only one number in each of the appropriate rows or columns.

C. If it says "(Circle as many as apply.)" circle as many or as few numbers in the columns or rows as you think are relevant.

Thank you very much for your help.

David Gottlieb
Study Director

Personal Characteristics

1. Your age on your last birthday:

(Circle one.)

19 or younger................01
20...........................02
21...........................03
22...........................04
23...........................05
24...........................06
25...........................07
26-30........................08
31 or older..................09

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2. Sex

(Circle one.)

Male.........................1
Female.......................2

---

3. Marital Status

*single, don't expect to be married before Fall 1972...1
**single, expect to be married before Fall 1972.........2
**married, one or more children or expecting a child....3
**married, no children..................................4
*widowed, divorced, separated...........................5

*If "single, don't expect to be married before Fall 1972" or "widowed, divorced, separated": go to Question 4

**If "married" or "expecting to be married before Fall 1972": What will your spouse or future spouse most likely be doing next year? (Circle as many as apply)

working full-time.....................01
working part-time.....................02
housewife, mother.....................03
going to graduate school..............04
military service......................05
serving with Peace Corps, VISTA, etc..06
travel................................07
no plans yet..........................08
other (Circle & specify)

________________________________...09

4. Your religion: (Circle one in each column.)

	Column 1	Column 2
	Religion in which you were reared	Your current religious preference
Protestant (Circle & specify.) ________________________..	1	1
Roman Catholic..................	2	2
Jewish..........................	3	3
Other (Circle & specify.) ________________________..	4	4
None............................	5	5

---

5. How often do you attend religious services? (Circle one.)

Regularly..............1
Occasionally...........2
Rarely.................3
Not at all.............4

---

6. What is your race or ethnic background? (Circle one.)

Black.........................1
American Indian...............2
Mexican American/Chicano.....3
Puerto Rican..................4
Oriental......................5
White.........................6
Other (Circle & specify.)
________________________..7

---

7. Specify your national or ethnic background in the space below. For example, "Italian American," "Polish American," "Russian American," "Irish American," etc.

Specify:________________________________

---

8. Your parents are: (Circle one.)

Married...............1
Divorced..............2
Separated.............3
Mother deceased.......4
Father deceased.......5

9. Please indicate your parents' (or step-parent's if parent is dead) highest educational attainment.

	Column 1 Your Father	Column 2 Your Mother
8th grade or less................	1	1
some high school.................	2	2
high school graduate.............	3	3
vocational or technical school beyond high school............	4	4
some college.....................	5	5
college graduate.................	6	6
graduate or professional degree beyond the baccalaureate.......	7	7
I don't know.....................	8	8

10. Which of the following categories best describes the usual occupation of your parents? (Circle one in the column for your father's occupation and one in the column for your mother's occupation.)

	Column 1 Your Father	Column 2 Your Mother
Housewife........................	01	01
Professional.....................	02	02
Proprietor or Manager...........	03	03
Sales (other than Sales Manager or Administrator).............	04	04
Clerical.........................	05	05
Skilled Worker or Semi-Skilled..	06	06
Unskilled Worker.................	07	07
Farmer or Farm Worker...........	08	08
Not Employed.....................	09	09

11. Indicate the approximate current income category for your parents. Consider annual income from all sources before taxes.

(Circle one.)

Less than $5,000 per year....01
$5,000 - $7,499...............02
$7,500 - $9,999...............03
$10,000 - $14,999............04
$15,000 - $19,999............05
$20,000 - $24,999............06
$25,000 - $29,999............07
$30,000 - $40,000............08
Over $40,000.................09
I have no idea...............10

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12. Which of the following best describes the community which you think of as your home town during high school days and the type of community you would want to live in after you complete your formal education?

(Circle one in each column.)

	Column 1	Column 2
	Hometown	Where I will want to Live
Farm or open country	01	01
College/university community	02	02
Suburb in a metropolitan area of--		
more than 2 million population	03	03
500,000 to 2 million	04	04
100,000 to 499,999	05	05
less than 100,000	06	06
Central city in a metropolitan area or city of--		
more than 2 million population	07	07
500,000 to 2 million	08	08
100,000 to 499,999	09	09
50,000 to 99,999	10	10
10,000 to 49,999	11	11
less than 10,000	12	12

13. What is the major academic area in which you will be receiving your baccalaureate (B.A., B.S.) degree? (Circle one.)

Business and administration	01
Engineering	02
Physical Sciences	03
Education	04
Health Professions	05
Biological Sciences	06
Agricultural & Related Fields	07
Psychology	08
Social Sciences	09
Humanities	10
Other (Circle & Specify.) ____________________	11

---

14. How many years will have been required to complete your college degree? (Include the total time between when you first enrolled in college and when you will be receiving your college degree. Include also time enrolled in junior or community college: time you were out of college for any reason such as military service, illness, work, etc.)

(Circle one.)

Less than three years	1
Between three and four	2
Four years	3
Between four and five	4
Five years	5
Between five and six years	6
More than six	7

---

15. During your college years:

(Circle as many as apply.)

I have always been enrolled as a full-time student	1
I have sometimes been enrolled as a full-time student and sometimes enrolled as a part-time student	2
I have always been enrolled as a part-time student	3
I have skipped entire terms (semesters) when I was not in school	4
I have skipped entire year(s) when I was not in school	5

16. What is your overall college cumulative grade point average?
(Circle one.)

A.................01
A-................02
B+................03
B.................04
B-................05
C+................06
C.................07
C-................08
D+................09
D or lower.......10

---

17. During your college years, have you at any time been a member of a sorority or fraternity?
(Circle one.)

*yes..........1
**no...........2

**If "no": Skip to Question 18

*If "yes": How active have you been in your sorority or fraternity?
(Circle one.)

Very active.......1
Somewhat active...2
Not at all active.3

---

18. Different students have different financial sources for covering the costs of their college education. Listed below are a number of such financial sources. Indicate both the source(s) from which you received financial aid in order to complete college and the percentage of aid coming from each source. The total should be 100%. (For example, if half (50%) of the costs were paid by your parents and half (50%) were paid from part-time jobs, you would write 50% on the row indicating Parents and 50% on the row indicating Part-time job.)

FINANCIAL SOURCE Per Cent

Part-time or summer work.......................________%
Savings from full-time employment.............________%
Parental or family aid or gifts................________%
Parents' military service......................________%
Personal military service......................________%
Spouse's employment............................________%
Scholarships and grants........................________%
NDEA loans, government & college loans.........________%
Other repayable loans..........................________%
Other (Circle & specify.)
____________________________________...________%
TOTAL......... 100 %

19. Indicate which of the following best describes your post-graduation plans for both the summer 1972 and fall 1972.

(Circle as many as apply in each column.)

	Column 1 Summer 1972 Plans	Column 2 Fall 1972 Plans
travel, vacation	01	01
temporary job	02	02
military service	03	03
join a group working to alleviate social problems (VISTA, Peace Corps, etc.)	04	04
graduate school	05	05
professional school (medicine, law)	06	06
full-time homemaker	07	07
full-time job in field I expect to pursue throughout my career	08	08
full-time job in field I do not expect to pursue throughout my career	09	09
part-time job in field I expect to pursue throughout my career	10	10
part-time job in field I do not expect to pursue throughout my career	11	11
I don't know	12	12
Other (Circle & specify.) ______	13	13

---

20. What full-time salary would you expect to receive for your job once you complete your education?

(Circle one in each column.)

	Column 1 First job after completing education	Column 2 Five Years Later	Column 3 Ten Years Later
Less than $3,000	01	01	01
$3,000 - $4,999	02	02	02
$5,000 - $7,999	03	03	03
$8,000 - $11,999	04	04	04
$12,000 - $14,999	05	05	05
$15,000 - $19,999	06	06	06
$20,000 - $24,999	07	07	07
$25,000 - $29,999	08	08	08
Over $30,000	09	09	09
Do not expect to be working	10	10	10

21. How would you describe the political attitudes of both yourself and your parents?
(Circle one in each column.)

	Column 1 Your own Attitudes	Column 2 Your Father's Attitudes	Column 3 Your Mother's Attitudes
No one consistent political attitude...	01	01	01
Conservative.................	02	02	02
Moderate.....................	03	03	03
Liberal......................	04	04	04
Radical Left.................	05	05	05
Radical Right................	06	06	06
No political attitudes.......	07	07	07
I don't know.................	08	08	08
Other (Circle & specify) ______________________	09	09	09

22. Which of the following best describes the marital arrangements which you expect to have in five years?
(Circle one.)

unmarried.................1
*unmarried but living with someone............2
*married with children.....3
*married without children..4

*If you have circled "unmarried but living with someone," "married with children," or "married without children" and you expect to be working in five years: Which of the following best describes your attitude toward your spouse?
(Circle one.)

I would expect my spouse to be very involved with my work and to perhaps even share my work responsibilities.........................1
I would expect my spouse to have an interest in my work and to be aware of my work's demands and responsibilities..................2
I would expect my spouse to have little involvement in or understanding of my work...3
I would expect my spouse to be a part of my life which will be entirely removed and separated from my work.....................4

*If you have circled "unmarried but living with someone," "married with children," or "married without children" and you do not expect to be working in five years: Which of the following best describes your attitude toward your role in your spouse's work?
(Circle one.)

I would expect to be very involved in my spouse's work and perhaps even to share my spouse's work responsibility...................1
I would expect to be interested in my spouse's work and to be aware of my spouse's work demands and responsibilities...............2
I would expect to have little involvement or understanding of my spouse's work...3
I would expect to be a part of my spouse's life which will be entirely removed and separated from my spouse's work.............4

23. Are your post-graduation occupation plans the same now as they were when you first selected your college major?

(Circle one.)

Yes, exactly the same........1
Yes, somewhat the same.......2
*No, not the same.............3
I had no plans...............4

---

*If "no," your post-graduation occupation plans are not the same now: Which of the following best describes your reasons for the change?

(Circle as many as apply.)

I am no longer interested in pursuing the same career.......1
My financial circumstances have changed......................2
My family responsibilities have changed......................3
I have become more involved with changing our society.......4
I have become less involved with changing our society.......5
I have decided to go to graduate school......................6
I have decided not to go to graduate school.................7
Other (Circle & specify.) ______________________________ 8

If you intend to enter graduate school in the Fall: SKIP TO QUESTION 29

---

24. Which of the following best described your post-college graduation job situation?

(Circle one.)

**I have seriously sought but been unable to obtain any job...........1

**I have seriously sought but have been unable to obtain a job which I was willing to accept............................2

*I have neither seriously sought nor obtained a post-graduation job..3

**I have obtained a post-graduation job with which I am very pleased..4

**I have obtained a post-graduation job with which I am somewhat pleased..5

**I have obtained a post-graduation job with which I am not particularly pleased.................................6

---

*If "I neither seriously sought nor obtained a post-graduation job": Do you anticipate problems in finding a job you would want?

(Circle one.)

Yes..................1

No...................2

I don't know.........3

**If you have sought or obtained a post-graduation job: Which of the following methods have you used in seeking a job?

(Circle as many as apply.)

college placement office.............01
personal inquiry.....................02
public employment agency
(State employment agency)..........03
private employment agency............04
friends..............................05
relatives............................06
college faculty......................07
newspaper advertisements.............08
professional journals................09
other (Circle & specify.)
________________________________10

---

25. If you were unable to obtain the type of job for which your college experience prepared you, how difficult do you feel it would be for you to obtain some other type of work? (Circle one.)

Very difficult.....................1
Somewhat difficult.................2
Not difficult at all...............3

---

26. Suppose that you were unable to obtain a job immediately after college graduation, would you be: (Circle one.)

Not as all concerned...............1
Somewhat concerned.................2
Very concerned.....................3

---

27. If you couldn't find a job in your field, which of the following would you do: (Circle one.)

Continue to search for a job in your field..............................1

Seek any sort of job at all to tide you over until the type of job you want appears..2

Wait until you could get the job you wanted in your field..............3

Select another field of interest even if it meant that you could not use the skills acquired through your education.........4

Go to graduate school..5

Other (Circle & specify.)________________________________6

28. If you could not find employment immediately after college graduation, which of the following would be of greatest concern to you? (Circle three and indicate rank of importance in the space provided. For example, if you feel that "boredom" is most important to you, you would respond thus: __1__ ④. 1=Most Important; 2=Second Most Important; 3=Third Most Important.)

Attitude of parents.................._____1
Own feelings of adequacy............._____2
Financial difficulties..............._____3
Boredom.............................._____4
Attitude of girlfriend (boyfriend, spouse, etc.)............_____5
Other (Circle & specify.)
__________________________....._____6

---

29. How difficult do you think it will be for graduates of the following areas to find an acceptable starting job upon receiving their baccalaureate (BA, BS) degree? For example: If you think it will be very difficult for Business and administration graduates to find acceptable starting jobs, you would circle 1 under very difficult. (Circle one in each row.)

	Very Difficult	Somewhat Difficult	Not at All	I don't Know
Row 1: Business and administration	1	2	3	4
Row 2: Engineering	1	2	3	4
Row 3: Physical Sciences	1	2	3	4
Row 4: Education	1	2	3	4
Row 5: Health Professions	1	2	3	4
Row 6: Biological Sciences	1	2	3	4
Row 7: Agriculture & Related Fields	1	2	3	4
Row 8: Psychology	1	2	3	4
Row 9: Social Sciences	1	2	3	4
Row 10: Humanities	1	2	3	4
Row 11: Your own major	1	2	3	4

30. Which of the following best describes the problems which you encountered (or would expect to encounter) when seeking a job?

(Circle as many as apply.)

adequacy of my skill qualifications	01
adequacy of my educational qualifications	02
job discrimination (race)	03
job discrimination (sex)	04
the tight job market	05
finding a job with desirable characteristics (location, salary, etc.)	06
don't know where to look	07
not knowing what I want to do	08
other (Circle & specify.) ______________________	09
None	10

---

31. Did you have a job during any of the following periods?

(Circle as many as apply.)

before high school years	1
during high school years	2
during college (summers & holidays)	3
during college (while classes were in session, during academic year)	4
military service	5
college years interrupted by period of full-time work	6
none	7

---

32. In the space below, briefly describe your preferred career choice. For example: History teacher, secondary; psychologist, clinical; doctor, pediatrics; lawyer, legal services; personnel director, industry.

33. Which of the following will be your most likely employer when you begin full-time work in your anticipated career field? (Circle one.)

Private company with 100 or more employees	01
Private company with fewer than 100 employees or professional partnership	02
Family business	03
Self-employed	04
Research organization or institute	05
College or university or junior college	06
Elementary or secondary school or school system	07
Other educational institutions (e.g., technical vocational school)	08
Federal government	09
State or local government	10
Hospital, church, clinic, welfare organization, etc	11
Other (Circle & specify.) ______________________	12

---

34. When you selected your college major, how aware were you of the job market for your chosen field? (Circle one.)

Very aware	1
Not too aware	2
Not at all aware	3

---

35. Do you feel that the job market has changed in this field since you made your career decision? (Circle one.)

Yes, there are now fewer jobs available	1
Yes, there are now more jobs available	2
No, it has stayed approximately the same	3
I don't know	4

---

36. How influential were the following people in your decisions concerning the selection of your college major?

(Circle one for each row.)

	Very Influential	Somewhat Influential	Not at All Influential
Row 1: Parents	1	2	3
Row 2: Member of college faculty	1	2	3
Row 3: Assigned academic advisor	1	2	3
Row 4: Person in field chosen	1	2	3
Row 5: Friends	1	2	3
Row 6: Others (Circle & specify.) ______________	1	2	3

37. How many times have you changed your major since entering college?
(Circle one.)

once..........................1
twice.........................2
three or more times...........3
have not changed..............4

---

38. Did you require any assistance in making your decisions about your post-graduation career?
(Circle one.)

*Yes......................1

No........................2

---

*If "yes, assistance was required": From which of the following people did you seek assistance?

(Circle as many as apply.)

Parents.........................1
Member of college faculty........2
Assigned academic advisor........3
Person in field chosen...........4
Friends.........................5
Others (Circle & specify.)
______________________________6

---

39. At what point do you think college students should know the type of work they are going to be doing after college graduation? In column 1 indicate the time when you think the decision should be made. In column 2 indicate the time when you made your decision.

(Circle one in each column.)

	Column 1	Column 2
	When the Decision Should be Made	When you Made Your Decision
By the time they first enter college.....................	1	1
By the end of their first year.	2	2
By the end of their second year.........................	3	3
By the end of their third year.	4	4
By the end of their fourth year or when they graduate...	5	5
By the time they select a major.......................	6	6
There is no time..............	7	7

40. Which of the following best describes your feelings about college graduates who postpone entering the job market for a year or two after graduation although they could work if they chose to do so?
(Circle one.)

They're lazy and want to avoid adult responsibilities..................1
They're fortunate and I'd do the same if I could......................2
They're fortunate but I really wouldn't want to do it myself..........3
They're making a mistake by not entering the job market as soon as they can..................................4
I don't care much what anyone else does...............................5
Other (Circle & specify.)________________________________6

---

41. If you had free choice and enjoyed a complete absence of restraints (finances, family, etc.), what would you do for one year after college graduation?
(Circle one.)

travel...01
go to graduate school..........................02
go to graduate school & work part-time.........03
join a group working to alleviate social problems--(VISTA, Peace Corps, etc.)...........04
find a job in my field.........................05
find a job not in my field.....................06
devote the time to my own interests............07
absolutely nothing.............................08
go into business for myself....................09
use the time to further my own knowledge.......10
I don't know...................................11
other (Circle & specify.)
________________________________12

---

42. Which of the following do you actually expect to do for at least one year after college graduation?
(Circle one.)

travel...01
go to graduate school..........................02
go to graduate school & work part-time.........03
join a group working to alleviate social problems--(VISTA, Peace Corps, etc.)...........04
find a job in my field.........................05
find a job not in my field.....................06
devote the time to my own interests............07
absolutely nothing.............................08
go into business for myself....................09
use the time to further my own knowledge.......10
I don't know...................................11
other (Circle & specify.)
________________________________12

43. Which of the following best describes what you see as the ideal relationship between your work, your spouse, and your children?
(Circle one.)

I don't expect my career work to interfere with or influence my relationship with my family or my home life..................1

I expect that it will be necessary for my family and my home life to be somewhat affected and to adapt to my career needs..........2

I expect that it will be necessary for my family and home life to accept the fact that my career will keep me busy and perhaps away from home...3

I do not expect to have a family.................................4

---

44. When you compare the type of life style which you would like to achieve with that of your parents, which of the following would you prefer?

A life style very similar to that of my parents...................1

A life style somewhat similar to that of my parents but without the need for so many material goods and possessions......2

A life style somewhat similar to that of my parents but with more in the way of material goods and possessions....................3

A life style quite unlike that of my parents......................4

---

45. How attainable do you feel your concept of the "good life" will be?
(Circle one.)

Easily attainable.................................1

Attainable through hard work.........................2

Very difficult to attain; only slight possibility of attaining it.......................3

Impossible for me to attain..........................4

46. Different factors may prevent individuals from attaining their desired goals in life. Listed below are two sets of such factors which we have called "External Factors" and "Personal Factors." Indicate in each of the sets those factors which you think might affect the attainment of your life goals. (Circle as many as apply in each set.)

SET 1		SET 2	
EXTERNAL FACTORS		PERSONAL FACTORS	
War	1	Lack of ability	01
Racial Conflict	2	Lack of training & education	02
Overpopulation	3	Lack of opportunity--not getting the right breaks in life	03
Violence	4	Lack of clear or positive aims	04
Moral values of our nation	5	Personal problems	05
Pollution	6	Family restrictions	06
None of the above	7	My race	07
		My sex	08
		My goals are too high	09
		I don't feel that anything will keep me from having the kind of life I want	10

---

47. Which of the factors listed above ("External" and "Personal") do you feel would be most likely to prevent you from having the type of life you want? (Circle one.)

"External"	1
"Personal"	2
Both "External" and "Personal"	3
Neither "External nor "Personal"	4

48. Which of the following comes closest to describing your life style preference for the future? (Circle one.)

I prefer to live a fairly private life. While I plan to have some close friends, I will not be actively involved in social and political concerns. I do not plan on being a joiner, nor do I expect to be active in many community activities. Most of my free time will be spent with my family..........1

Although I intend to build much of my life around my family, I do plan on participating in some community activities involving political-social concerns. I will probably join several organizations and clubs. I plan on having more than a few friends and spending time with many different kinds of people. Generally, I plan on maintaining a fairly even balance between my private and public life..........2

Although my family will be an important part of my life, I do plan on being a very active person in my community. I intend to be involved in a variety of social and political activities. I want very much to play a strong role in helping to eliminate the problems faced by our society. I will probably become involved in such efforts even though it may create some hardships for my family..........3

Because I plan on being actively involved in social and political concerns, I do not plan on having a family for at least five years. I want to be as mobile as possible and not have to worry about the responsibility of a family..........4

I do not plan on being actively involved in matters of social and political concern. At the same time, I do not plan on having a family for at least five years. I want to be free to move around and to explore different alternatives..........5

Other (Circle & specify.)____________________6

---

49. Which of the following do you feel are the most important factors in defining the life style which you would like to have in five years? (Circle three and indicate the order of importance in the indicated space. 1=Most Important; 2=Second Most Important; 3=Third Most Important)

good family relationships.........._____01
freedom to pursue your own interests...._____02
favorable geographical location.........._____03
good friends.........._____04
freedom from financial worry.........._____05
a challenging job.........._____06
steady, secure employment.........._____07
opportunities for meaningful work......._____08
access to art institutes, music, theatre, etc.........._____09
Other (Circle & specify.)
____________________..._____10

50. How do you think your parents feel about your career and work plans? (Circle one.)

They are pleased with my plans....................1
They are neither pleased nor displeased: rather, they feel the decisions are up to me.......................................2
They are not pleased...............................3
I have not discussed my plans with them..........4

---

51. Generally, which of the following best describes how you think your father felt about his work most of the time? (Circle one.)

I think he was happy with his work all of the time..........1
I think he was happy with his work most of the time.........2

I think he was happy with his work some of the time.........3
I think he was unhappy with his work most of the time.......4
I think he was unhappy with his work all of the time........5
I don't know..6

---

52. Please read the following descriptions and indicate which of the characteristics of each you most like and least like.
(Circle one in each column for each description.)

		Column 1	Column 2
		Most Like	Least Like
A. You, your family, and your friends have decided upon a communal life style. You all contribute to the cohesiveness and self-sufficiency of the group. Your emphasis is not so much on the quantity of the things which you possess but rather upon the quality of the human relationships in your life.	communal life style	1	1
	group cohesiveness	2	2
	self-sufficiency	3	3
	quality of human relationships	4	4
	de-emphasis on quantity of possessions	5	5
		Most Like	Least Like
B. You are a loner. While you may or may not enjoy the company of others, your primary interest is in remaining flexible and mobile in your life style. Your work encourages, perhaps even requires, that you travel frequently and alone. You require a great deal of freedom in relationships, freedom to move.	solitude	1	1
	mobility	2	2
	freedom in relationships	3	3
	freedom to travel	4	4
	employment necessitating travel	5	5

		Most Like	Least Like
C. Yours is an effort to lead a "comfortable" life. You would like the usual benefits of a happy family, a secure job, standardized work hours, etc. While you would like the "good life" (car, home, vacations, etc.), you are not really concerned with amassing large amounts of goods or possessions.	happy family	1	1
	job security	2	2
	"the good life"	3	3
	possession of "enough" goods	4	4

		Most Like	Least Like
D. Yours is a life style which you perceive to be more flexible than that of the surrounding culture, but you still utilize parts of that culture for your own needs. You see yourself as having friend and family relationships which are more open and flexible than most; you seek employment which is less restrictive, with less emphasis on security and steadiness. You are a "part" of the system, but you have your own style	interaction with the larger culture	1	1
	semi-open and flexible family/ friend relation ships	2	2
	more flexible employment	3	3
	"fringe" of culture	4	4

		Most Like	Least Like
E. You are vitally concerned with the social problems of this country. Not only have you committed yourself to finding solutions, but you expect your family life to reflect that concern. You have little interest in the more material aspects of living; rather, you are concerned with aiding fellow humans.	concern with social issues	1	1
	personal commitment to ideal or belief	2	2
	the helping role	3	3
	family commitment	4	4
	lack of interest in material gains	5	5
	concern with other people	6	6

F. You want to "make it." You expect to acquire the material possessions which only large amounts of money can obtain. You are willing to work long and hard to achieve financial success. Your family reflects both adjustment to and appreciation of your need to work and make money.

	Most Like	Least Like
emphasis on acquisition	1	1
financial success	2	2
need for hard work	3	3
family adjustment to work needs	4	4

---

53. Which of the life styles described above do you think you would most like to live yourself? Which do you expect to live yourself?
(Circle one in each column.)

	Column 1	Column 2
	Most Like to Live	Actually Expect to Live
A...	1	1
B...	2	2
C...	3	3
D...	4	4
E...	5	5
F...	6	6

---

54. Which of the following do you feel are the most important aspects of a job? (Circle three and indicate order for each column. 1=Most Important; 2=Second Most Important; 3=Third Most Important.)

	Column 1	Column 2
	For Your Father	For Yourself
security..................................	_____01	_____01
potential for rapid advancement...........	_____02	_____02
high salary...............................	_____03	_____03
opportunity to be individualistic.........	_____04	_____04
relevance to society......................	_____05	_____05
freedom to work at own pace...............	_____06	_____06
opportunity to work with hands............	_____07	_____07
friendly co-workers.......................	_____08	_____08
personal interest in work.................	_____09	_____09
opportunity to help other people..........	_____10	_____10
opportunity to be creative & original.....	_____11	_____11
solid physical labor......................	_____12	_____12
opportunity to work outdoors..............	_____13	_____13
stability of job..........................	_____14	_____14
social status.............................	_____15	_____15
other (Circle & specify.)________________	_____16	_____16

55. Which of these characteristics would be of greatest concern to you in choosing a job? In column A, circle the numbers of the three most important characteristics and indicate their order in the spaces beside the numbers.

In Column A	In Column B
1=Most Important	1=Least Important
2=Second Most Important	2=Second Least Important
3=Third Most Important	3=Third Least Important

	Column A	Column B
	Most Important Characteristics	Least Important Characteristics
Chance to learn new things................	______01	______01
Opportunities to be helpful to others or useful to society.......................	______02	______02
Avoiding a high pressure job which takes too much out of you...................	______03	______03
Opportunity for advancement..............	______04	______04
High prestige and social status...........	______05	______05
Chance to use my special abilities.......	______06	______06
Freedom from supervision in my work......	______07	______07
Variety in work assignments..............	______08	______08
Chance to engage in satisfying leisure activities--(recreational,cultural,etc).	______09	______09
Friendly and congenial associates........	______10	______10
Working as a part of a team..............	______11	______11
Making a lot of money....................	______12	______12
Stable and secure future.................	______13	______13
Chance to exercise leadership............	______14	______14
Chance to make a contribution to important decisions....................	______15	______15

MEN: SKIP TO QUESTION 56B

56A. For women only: Do you expect to continue working after your marriage (should you decide to marry)--before the birth of your children (should you decide to have children)? (Circle one.)

Yes, I want to.......................1
Only if my husband doesn't mind......2
Only if I have to....................3
No...................................4
I don't know.........................5

After the birth of your children? (Circle one.)

Yes, I want to......................1
Only if my husband doesn't mind....2
Only if I have to..................3
No.................................4
I don't know.......................5

After your children have reached school age? (Circle one.)

Yes, I want to......................1
Only if my husband doesn't mind....2
Only if I have to..................3
No.................................4
I don't know.......................5

After your children have grown and left home? (Circle one.)

Yes, I want to......................1
Only if my husband doesn't mind....2
Only if I have to..................3
No.................................4
I don't know.......................5

WOMEN: SKIP TO QUESTION 57

56B. For men only: Do you expect your wife to continue working after your marriage (should you decide to marry)--before the birth of your children (should you decide to have children)? (Circle one.)

Yes, if she wants to...............1
Only if she has to.................2
No.................................3
I don't know.......................4

After the birth of your children? (Circle one.)

Yes, if she wants to...............1
Only if she has to.................2
No.................................3
I don't know.......................4

After your children have reached school age? (Circle one.)

Yes, if she wants to.......1
Only if she has to.........2
No.........................3
I don't know...............4

After your children have grown and left home? (Circle one.)

Yes, if she wants to.......1
Only if she has to.........2
No.........................3
I don't know...............4

57. Which of the following best describes your mother's work during most of the years in which you were growing up. (Circle one.)

*housework................................1
**part-time employment out of the home......2
**full-time employment out of the home......3
**employment within the home (salaried).....4

a. *If "housework": Which of the following best describes her reasons for never having outside employment?

(Circle as many as apply.)

The additional income was not needed......1
My father did not want her to work........2
She had no real job skills................3
Children at home..........................4
She never really wanted to................5
Health....................................6
I don't know..............................7

b. **If "part-time employment out of the home," "full-time employment out of the home," or "employment within the home": Which of the reasons listed below best describes your mother's reasons for working? (Circle as many as apply.)

Supplement father's income................1
Support the family (no father)............2
Help with college education of children...3
Maintain her professional career..........4
Full-time homemaking was not fulfilling for her.................5
I really don't know.......................6

58. Generally, which of the following best describes how you think your mother felt about her role? (Circle one.)

I think she was pretty happy with her role most of the time............1
I think she was happy with most aspects of her role but unhappy about other aspects...................2
I think she was happy about a few aspects of her role but unhappy about most aspects.............3
I think she was pretty unhappy with her role most of the time...........4
I don't know...5

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59. When I think about work, I feel........

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60. How do you see yourself in the world of work? (Circle one in each row that best describes your opinion on each statement below.)

SA=Strongly Agree
MA=Mildly Agree SD=Strongly Disagree
MD=Mildly Disagree IM=Irrelevant to Me

	SA	MA	MD	SD	IM
Row 1: I would rather not take a job in business	1	2	3	4	5
Row 2: There is no place for the rebel in large organizations	1	2	3	4	5
Row 3: Few jobs let a person be creative	1	2	3	4	5
Row 4: I would not work for an organization that carried out policies I think are wrong	1	2	3	4	5
Row 5: My private life will not be sacrificed to make money	1	2	3	4	5
Row 6: I assume I will have a good income. I'm more concerned with finding a job where I will do relevant things	1	2	3	4	5
Row 7: I'm worried that my job will be boring and monotonous	1	2	3	4	5
Row 8: A job is a way of making a living, not a way of life	1	2	3	4	5
Row 9: The kind of work I do matters more than whether I do it for government, business, a university, or an independent organization	1	2	3	4	5
Row 10:My career will be the most important thing in my life	1	2	3	4	5
Row 11:I have a pretty good idea of what I want to do with my life, but I'm not sure there is any way for me to do it	1	2	3	4	5
Row 12:Little useful guidance is provided for making career choices	1	2	3	4	5
Row 13:Most people like to work	1	2	3	4	5

		SA MA MD SD IM
Row 14:	I like to work	1..2..3..4..5
Row 15:	Work is a good builder of character	1..2..3..4..5
Row 16:	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of hard work	1..2..3..4..5
Row 17:	To be really successful in life, you must care about making money	1..2..3..4..5
Row 18:	To me, work is nothing more than a way of making a living	1..2..3..4..5
Row 19:	The most important part of work to me is earning enough money to do what I want	1..2..3..4..5
Row 20:	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of personal effort	1..2..3..4..5
Row 21:	In our society, anyone who is physically able and wants to find a job can find a job	1..2..3..4..5
Row 22:	Hard work makes you a better person	1..2..3..4..5
Row 23:	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of how much you know	1..2..3..4..5

---

61. With which of the following statements do you agree or disagree?
(1=Agree; 2=Disagree) (Circle one in each row.)

	Agree	Disagree
In general, women and men have equal capabilities and, therefore, should have equal opportunities for work.......	1	2
In general, women may be equal to men in some areas, but their thinking patterns are different from men, and they are therefore less efficient than men in some work........	1	2
In general, women are more emotional than men, and this would interfere with their doing certain types of work....	1	2
In general, the physical characteristics of women make them unqualified for some types of work which are generally available to men..	1	2
Women are not really "equal" to men; rather, they are different and should, therefore, have different kinds of jobs	1	2
Women function best in the roles of wife and mother.......	1	2
A true woman is happiest at home with her children and her husband..	1	2

62. How easily do you feel you could accept the following situations in a work setting? (Circle one in each row.)

	Accept Easily	Accept Reluctantly	Reject
Row 1: Conforming in matters of clothing and personal grooming	1	2	3
Row 2: Outward conformity for the sake of career advancement	1	2	3
Row 3: The power and authority of the "boss" in a work (job) situation	1	2	3
Row 4: Moving frequently as part of the job	1	2	3

63. Which of the following do you feel are characteristic of yourself? (Circle one in each row.)

MLM=Most Like Me
SLM=Somewhat Like Me
SUM=Somewhat Unlike Me
NLM=Not Like Me

	MLM	SLM	SUM	NLM
optimistic	1	2	3	4
cynical	1	2	3	4
insecure	1	2	3	4
confident	1	2	3	4
cautious	1	2	3	4
thoughtful	1	2	3	4
alienated	1	2	3	4
very religious	1	2	3	4
serious	1	2	3	4
aggressive	1	2	3	4
intelligent	1	2	3	4
impulsive	1	2	3	4
logical	1	2	3	4
involved	1	2	3	4
hung-up	1	2	3	4
uncommitted	1	2	3	4
loving	1	2	3	4
beautiful	1	2	3	4
a leader	1	2	3	4
ambitious	1	2	3	4
hardworking	1	2	3	4
idealistic	1	2	3	4
practical	1	2	3	4

MLM=Most Like Me
SLM=Somewhat Like Me
SUM=Somewhat Unlike Me
NLM=Not Like Me

	MLM	SLM	SUM	NLM
competitive	1	2	3	4
moral	1	2	3	4
mature	1	2	3	4
hostile	1	2	3	4
honest	1	2	3	4
insightful	1	2	3	4
analytical	1	2	3	4
an intellectual	1	2	3	4
uncooperative	1	2	3	4
unhappy	1	2	3	4
fun-loving	1	2	3	4
easy-going	1	2	3	4
athletic	1	2	3	4

---

64. Do you feel apprehensive about your ability to deal with the complexities and problems of our society? (Circle one.)

often..............1
sometimes..........2
seldom.............3
never..............4

---

65. What would you say the college experience has provided you with in terms of skills needed in your future job? (Circle as many as apply.)

A vital, crucial part of my long-range training program..........1
The complete requirements for obtaining the type of job I would like to have..................................2
Not much in the way of skills but exposure to ideas.............3
It has exposed me to professors and other students who have encouraged my interest in my career work...............4
Nothing at all...5

---

66. When it comes to meeting the demands of everyday life and work situations: (Circle one.)

I feel that I am as capable as most of my friends................1
I feel that I am more capable than most of my friends............2
I feel that I might not be quite as capable as most of my friends............3

---

67. Do you feel apprehensive about the state of society and its future? (Circle one.)

often.................1
sometimes.............2
seldom................3
never.................4

68. Do you feel that the college students of today are committed to changing some of the social ills of our society? (Circle one.)

Very committed.............1
Somewhat committed.........2
Not at all committed.......3

---

69. Do you feel that student commitment to resolving social problems is different now than it was for college students 10 years ago?

(Circle one.)

It is essentially the same....................1
College students today are more committed....2
College students today are less committed....3
I don't know.................................4

---

70. If you had the opportunity to begin your college experience again, which of the following would you do? (Circle one.)

I would not attend...1
I would attend, but I would change my major field of interest.....2
I would attend, but I would change some of my social experience...3
I would attend and would do it all again the same way.............4
I would attend but not this institution...........................5

---

71 When you applied for college entrance, was this college your first choice?

(Circle one.)

Yes...................1
No....................2

72. Listed below are some reasons for going to college. Which one best describes your most important reason for entering college?

(Circle one.)

avoid the draft..........................01
career, job training.....................02
social life..............................03
a chance to mature.......................04
wanted a college degree..................05
parental pressure........................06
wanted to increase my knowledge.........07
never considered any other possibility..08
didn't have anything else to do.........09
other (Circle & specify.)
____________________________________10

---

73. What areas/aspects of college life do you feel you have gained the most from? (Circle two.)

A specific curriculum involving a field of interest which I selected..01
Individual courses which have been interesting and meaningful to me...02
Certain individuals who have acted as models for what I would like to be doing........................03
Certain individuals who have helped me make important decisions.......04
Social groups...05
University community..06
Extracurricular activities--bars, sororities, fraternities, etc.......07
Learning about yourself; a sense of personal understanding and growth..............................08
Other (Circle & specify.)____09

74. Which of the following best describes your general college curriculum? (Circle three and rank order in the indicated space. 1=Most Important; 2=Second Most Important; 3=Third Most Important.)

flexible.................. _____01
exciting.................. _____02
structured................ _____03
fluid..................... _____04
changeable................ _____05
boring.................... _____06
irrelevant................ _____07
meaningful................ _____08
fun....................... _____09
open-ended................ _____10
hard work................. _____11

---

75. Would you have liked your college experience:

(Circle as many as apply.)

To have exposed you to more job/career alternatives............ 1
To have better equipped you to work in the field of your choice.. 2
To have provided you with more persons with whom you could have discussed your job preferences and concerns............3
To have generally broadened your knowledge.......................4
To have been essentially what it was.............................5

---

76. In the space below, describe your own feelings about leaving college and the concerns you have about the next several years of your life.

PLEASE PRINT

A. Your Name:

Last Name	First Name	Middle Name

B. Your Current Address:

Name of residence hall, building, etc.

Street Address

City or Town	State	Zip Code

C. Your most likely address one year from now:

Name of residence hall, department, company, etc., if any

Street Address

City or Town	State or Country	Zip Code

D. Name and address of someone who will know where you are or could forward a letter to you if you were not at the address you listed above:

Last Name	First Name	Middle Name

Street Address

City or Town	State or Country	Zip Code